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ABSTRACT

The 12 papers in this compilation focus on the activities of general research libraries, i.e., national, parliamentary, and university libraries: (1) "Commercial and Revenue Raising Activities in National Libraries" (Maurice Line & Peter Scott, New Zealand); (2) "The End of All and Forever--On the Acquisition Policies of National Libraries and the Future of Legal Deposit Material" (Bendick Rugass, Norway); (3) "The National Library of Iran in a Period of Change" (Poori Soltani, Iran); (4) "National Libraries in a Time of Change: Viewpoint from a Developing Country--Papua New Guinea" (Otto Kakaw, Papua New Guinea); (5) "International Co-operation in the Creation of a Library and Documentation Service for the National Assembly of Djibouti" (P. St. J. Dawe, Djibouti); (6) "A Modern Metamorphosis: Recent Development in the Queensland Parliamentary Library" (Nick Bannenberg, New Zealand); (7) "Parliamentary Libraries in Southeast Asia: Status of Development and Prospects for Cooperation" (Jane Ann Lindley, Pakistan); (8) "Guidelines for the Security of Loan Exhibitions" (Henry Heaney, United Kingdom); (9) "Australian Academic Libraries Approach the Millennium: The Record and the Prospect" (G. G. Allen, Australia); (10) "Library Effectiveness--The Need for Measurement" (John Willemse, Republic of South Africa); (11) "The History of the National Library of Indonesia: The Bibliographical Borobudur" (S. W. Massil, United Kingdom); and (12) "The History of National Library Provision in Australia" (Harrison Bryan, Australia). (CGD)

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Division of General Research Libraries

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Maurice Line, Harrogate, UK and Peter Scott, National Library of NZ, Wellington, NZ

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Bendick Rugaas, Ribsbibliotektjenesten (National Officer for Research and Special Libraries), Oslo, Norway

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S.W. Massil, University of London Library, London, UK

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Harrison Bryan (Former Director-General National Library of Australia). Research Affiliate, University of Sydney Library, Sydney, Australia

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COMMERCIAL AND REVENUE RAISING ACTIVITIES IN NATIONAL LIBRARIES

Maurice Line, *Harrogate, UK*
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National Libraries are faced with reduced budgets, increased pressures to operate more cost-effectively, and a growing climate of charging for information. Some National Libraries are now having to consider charging for such activities as document supply, bibliographic services and information services, as well as publications. Advantages of charging include increased awareness of markets and users, the ability to maintain or expand useful services, and a more cost-conscious approach. Problems include the need for new attitudes and skills, public sector constraints on staff numbers and salaries, the danger of undermining the library's basic functions, and consequential effects on the nation's library and information system.

Introduction

This paper considers commercial and revenue raising activities in national libraries from the viewpoint of both principle and practice. Such a paper would have been almost inconceivable 15 years ago, of only marginal concern 10 years ago, and of relevance only to relatively few libraries 5 years ago. The climate in which national libraries operate has changed dramatically in a short time, and the rate of change seems to be accelerating rather than slowing down. The paper is written by librarians from two countries of different sizes and with governments of different political persuasions, but the similarities in the pressures on and approaches of their National Libraries are far greater than the differences. It is hard to believe that similar factors are not already influencing other countries, or will not shortly do so, including ones with socialist economies.

The topic is a very large one, and its exploration in this paper is necessarily limited and in places superficial. The paper should be regarded as a basis for discussion, not as any sort of definitive statement: it is probably safe to say that such a statement will never be written.

National Libraries have of course raised money in the past. Most of them have produced publications for sale, some of them have sold catalogue records to other libraries, and a few have supplied photocopies of articles for sale. However, few of these activities could be called commercial. More recently, those National Libraries, such as Australia and New Zealand, that have hosted library networks or other automated services have recovered the costs from users of their services. Few National Library publications were commercially priced. Many of the costs were hidden; the works were often compiled by staff as part of their duties, and full direct costs, let alone total costs including overheads, such as accommodation or administration, were rarely charged. In the case of catalogue records also, the cost of compilation was rarely included, though the costs of physical production and distribution usually were, excluding overheads. How many national bibliographies were priced on a similar basis? In the case of document supply, the collections were regarded as a 'public good', and most direct costs, again usually excluding overheads, were charged. The purpose of charging in nearly all cases was to enable the service to be given or to prevent abuse. Without return of marginal costs supply on any scale could be unsustainable. Pricing policies have not been explicit and "cost plus" thinking has been possible without reference to the market, or to the monopoly position that the National Library's services may occupy within the library environment.

The Changing Climate: the Case for Charging

There are several factors that have led to a change in the climate in recent years. National Libraries have been faced with a changing social, political and management environment in which adaption, reorientation and responsiveness are necessary.

Particularly in developed capitalist countries, the emphasis upon the liberalization of the market, the debate upon the role of the state and the widening of the market ethos to include the provision of all services, and not just those in the preserve of the private sector, have all contributed to this change.

An awareness of the market is as necessary for National Libraries as other libraries. What information needs can be satisfied by a National Library and how can the appropriate services be delivered? It is no good continuing to supply services that are no longer wanted or required by clients, especially if this inhibits the growth of more relevant services. This implies a knowledge of the market itself: the needs of our users, the range of information services that are generally available, and an idea of likely developments within the field (and this includes other libraries and information providers). The National Library's market may be diffuse, remote and long term. The market for a preserved comprehensive legal deposit collection of the nation's publications, for example, is the nation itself, and more specifically future historians.

It has been very easy in the past for libraries to develop services that seem to them attractive but that in fact receive very little use, while at the same time there are real needs that have not been identified and hence not provided for. The library must have some reliable method for measuring how well it is performing in the delivery of services to the right people at the right time and delivered in the right manner. Charging provides one way of measuring these factors and of finding out what the market is and how much a particular activity is valued.

However, it must be emphasized here that in this case and those that follow, charging is only a mechanism, a means to an end. The objective of introducing charging here is to provide market signals rather than to raise revenue per se. The library's policies on charging or not charging must align with and contribute to its goals and objectives. If, for example, the library, as in the case of the National Library of New Zealand, has a statutory obligation to make its collections available and the introduction of charging results in a reduction of availability, the charging policy is inappropriate.

The two other factors can perhaps be bracketed together as of equal importance in developed capitalist countries: government policy, and a need to compensate for a decrease in government funding. These factors are closely inter-related, since it has been deliberate government policy in several countries to reduce public spending, not necessarily from perceived economic necessity but on the basic principle that the public sector should be reduced and the private sector encouraged, or in an attempt to redefine government functions. A market-oriented government is unwilling to accept that any services offered at public expense should be given away. There is thus a direct pressure to fall in line with government policy, and an indirect pressure of reduced funds which are the consequence of government policy. Inadequate resources to sustain and develop collections and services are common to nearly all countries, however, and the need to supplement government grants must be universally felt.

The British Library has specifically identified activities that should be government funded, and the New Zealand government has sought to distinguish between social objectives funded by government and commercial objectives funded by the user. Another way of looking at this is to identify what functions are unique to a government-funded institution and what could be carried out by other agencies or the private sector. This sort of approach forces a National Library to closely examine its role and its corresponding funding base.

Another influential factor is a large and rapid growth in the private information sector in capitalist countries. Private sector information services may attempt to do, for payment, some activities that the National Library has been doing free, so that the National Library either loses out or may be accused of unfair competition. If private bodies sell information, why should a National Library provide it free or at a subsidized rate? National Libraries can no longer regard the range of services they have given in the past, possibly exclusively, as a natural preserve.

Faced with these pressures, direct or indirect, a National Library can either wait until it is effectively forced into doing something, or it can try and anticipate pressures by taking pre-emptive action. Anticipation can be more than damage control. It can allow the library to take different strategic approaches to the new environment. Both reaction and anticipation have their dangers: the first because enforced action may have to be taken hastily and without full consideration, or it may be inconsistent with the National Library's main aims and ideals; and the second because it can never be certain that action will be eventually be necessary, and policies once adopted may prove impossible to reverse. However, in most cases it is much better for a National Library to demonstrate to the government that it is positive and is willing to take reasonable action, and is certainly better to plan any action carefully in advance.

As mentioned above, reduced funds are a matter of common experience. In the case of the British Library, the government grant has fallen short of inflation by 2% or 3% on average every year for the last 8 or 9 years. This may not seem much each year, but if continued over a long period the cumulative effect is severe, and there are no signs that the pressures will lessen. Nearly every National Library must have similar stories to tell.

One of the reasons why governments reduce the resources they give to National Libraries is that reduced funding is expected to

encourage economies and efficiency. Although the first reaction of almost any library to a reduced budget is to complain loudly and say that it is impossible to make further economies, there are very few libraries (or indeed institutions of any kind) that cannot improve their efficiency, and there is little doubt that many National Libraries have in fact done this. National Libraries have never been managed on anything approaching commercial lines. This generalization probably extends also to a consciousness and awareness of the true cost of operations and services; it is quite surprising how much productivity can be improved under pressure — up to a point, that is. But another reason is that governments may hope, or expect, National Libraries to make up the funding deficiency by earning money for themselves. There is a trap here, since they are far more likely to expect a National Library which is earning money already to earn more than to expect one that earns nothing to start earning, so that in effect a National Library may be penalized for earning anything at all. Once a National Library starts to earn money it must expect to go on. Whether money can actually be earned, and how much, is considered later.

Government policy both reflects and influences wider trends. The growth of the private information sector was mentioned earlier; this is part of a general trend to treat information as a saleable commodity, in the same way as other goods and services. Librarians are so familiar with the concept of freedom of access to information that the idea of information as a commodity has been accepted, if at all, only gradually and with reluctance. In fact, of course, freedom of access does not necessarily mean uncharged access. Freedom of access is linked to the acceptance of a social policy which either implicitly or explicitly recognizes the social role of libraries in providing access: on this principle, National Libraries contribute to the wider educational, cultural and social awareness of citizens. Those who do not subscribe to these ideas hold the view that it is wrong to obtain something free, even if it has been hitherto seen as a public resource to be freely tapped. Those who want admission to public museums and galleries to remain free are now having to produce sound reasons why they should be free when private museums and galleries charge, especially as only a minority of the population make use of them. If people are unwilling to pay, so the market argument goes, it may mean that the service is not seriously wanted. This argument in its purest form, which totally ignores social impacts, is unlikely to be applied to a National Library, but the climate of thinking affects it all the same.

Judiciously applied, charges can achieve greater justice, in that public money is not spent on services that are used by a privileged few, and so can be directed more to what are recognized as 'public good' activities. By charging for some things the National Library can help maintain other and more basic activities. In the British Library, for example, document supply services earn substantially more than their direct costs, and the surplus can then be used to sustain other activities such as the collections (on which in any case the document supply services ultimately depend).

Charging can also enable services to be continued, expanded, or even initiated that could not otherwise. An example of this is provided by the British Library's Business Information Service. Three years ago this was causing a problem because it was heavily used and much appreciated, but the staff allocated to it were not sufficient to keep up with demand, and any staff absences caused the service to run down if not break down completely. Staff could have been drawn from other parts of the library, but this would have meant reducing other necessary or desirable activities. Faced with a choice of scrapping the service entirely, allowing it to operate only half-effectively, and draining off resources from the rest of the library to keep it going, a fourth alternative was chosen: to put the service on a basis of cost-recovery. Marginal costs are now being recovered. This has enabled the service to be put on a sound footing. Either charges constrain demand to a level that can be managed or they bring in enough money to pay for increased staff to keep up with demand. The British Library is now contemplating other services, including entirely new ones, that can operate on a similar principle. In fact, the British Library has deliberately and overtly gone out into the information market — a move which has its risks, but which also has many advantages.

The National Library of New Zealand faced exactly the same situation and arrived at a similar solution with its business information brokerage, SATIS. Here cost recovery targets were increased from 6% to 50% but all direct and indirect costs were included. The service also took a more market and commercial approach to its services as a corollary to this increase in charges. After an initial fall off in demand, SATIS is now well on the way to meeting its targets, and has been able to respond to a renewed and increased demand with its additional resources. It would have been wrong to have either held down demand or subsidized a commercial service which brings private benefits to its users at the expense of a core national 'public good' function. These considerations apply even more if the services are in any form of competition with those from the private sector.

Charging also encourages, or rather enforces, greater cost-consciousness and greater efficiency on the part of the library. Staff giving a charged service cannot give a poor service, or it will collapse. This is of course specially true if the service competes with similar services given by other organizations. However, if the National Library is in a monopoly situation such as hosting the only network or providing national bibliographic records, this effect may be masked.

The National Library also has to know what the activities really cost. This is worthwhile in its own right, because the identification of true costs of activities can help in the allocation of resources across the library. Also, charging requires the development of commercial attitudes and skills, which may prove beneficial to the library as a whole, even in parts where services are not charged for.

Finally among the arguments for charging, it gives a National Library increasing independence of the government. The British Library now earns over 25% of what it spends, and this gives it a much greater degree of freedom than it would otherwise have. The concept of 'service envelopes' has proved to be a very valuable one. This means that a particular service recovers all its costs, and within the 'envelope' it is possible to acquire additional staff and equipment without going through the normal difficult and sometimes prolonged procedures. At a time when there are tremendous pressures to reduce staff, it is difficult to see how services like that of the Document Supply Centre could have been maintained at all, let alone grown, without the service envelope (the Document Supply Service was the first one to be 'enveloped').

While this paper deals with some of the principles that underlie the introduction of charging and the questions of charged as against uncharged services, the role of National Libraries and the consequent extent of government support have to be considered together. The philosophical and economic arguments that lead governments to support National Libraries have to be clearly related to all financial policy decisions. Some arguments such as 'public good', building, maintaining and providing access to collections, as against private benefits, particularly where value added services apply, can be clearly distinguished. But as an alternative to pragmatic market reasons, we can see the case for charging as a mirror image to the case for total government funding of services. Once we are clear as to the criteria for uncharged services, then the decision on what to charge for becomes more obvious. However, decisions are sometimes not clear cut and particularly in the case of automated services National Libraries may be faced with mixed criteria.

Prerequisites of Charging

Before any services or products are charged for, certain prerequisites need to be fulfilled. The first, and a very obvious one, is as solid a guarantee as can be obtained that the National Library can keep the money earned. In many countries any money earned goes straight into the government's coffers, and may never be seen by the National Library, even indirectly. Even if it is formally stated that the library may retain the money it earns, there is no way ultimately of knowing whether next year's grant by the government takes into account the library's likely earnings or not.

The second prerequisite, equally obvious, is an accurate knowledge of costs. Until 5 or 10 years ago, few libraries of any kind had done any precise costing of their activities; the techniques for costing were not included in library education, and there was no incentive or encouragement to cost activities. Real costs include all directly incurred costs such as salaries and computer charges, and also all overheads — accommodation, administration (including an apportionment of the cost of management salaries) — and the use of assets (mainly the collection). Cost consciousness must precede rather than follow charging policies, and must be seen as valuable for its own sake rather than as a by-product of charging. Cost consciousness is part of the development of commercial attitudes and skills. Like the insistence on quality control that should come with commercialization, it is a commercial value that can be applied in non-commercial activities. All staff should be aware of whether they are providing a service which gives value for money.

Without very precise costing, it is impossible to price services or products; even if it is intended to subsidize them, it is still desirable to know how great the subsidy is, while if costs are to be recovered obviously they have to be known. Distinctions have to be made between direct costs and full costs including overheads, which are usually very much higher. It may, for example, be intended merely to recover marginal costs when expanding a service, so that each

increase in the service is covered by income; or it may be decided to recover all costs, including those of the existing activity, excluding or including overheads. An alternative approach, which has the advantage of directly relating to the underlying policy decision rather than being a more arbitrary choice based on the incidence of costs, is to calculate all the costs and then to consider whether a form of social discount is warranted. This may mean that only a certain percentage of costs is recovered in the price. This procedure again helps to focus upon the reason for supplying the service, particularly if it has social implications, and the appropriateness of government support.

Charging and pricing decisions should take place within a defined decision making structure with regular reviews of the onset of budgetary pressures. The library will need first to have agreed criteria to judge whether a service should be supplied free, partly or fully cost recovered, or supplied at a profit. These criteria will vary from one country's situation to another and will depend upon the library's goals and objectives, particularly the weight given to achieving social objectives which benefit the population as a whole, the objectives of government policy, the importance with which efficiency is regarded, the role of other related agencies and other market factors. Some of these have already been dealt with in this paper. A service should then be evaluated against these criteria. It may be decided as a matter of policy to charge private sector users more than public sector users — possibly full commercial costs in the first case and direct costs only in the second. Or charged services may be divided into 'routine' charged at cost, and 'premium' charged at whatever the market will bear. There are many possibilities and permutations.

A third prerequisite is an adequate financial system to record expenditure as it is incurred and income as it comes in, with regular and frequent reports. Automated systems can obviously do this much better than manual ones, and monthly printouts of the state of financial affairs are desirable. Where expenditure and income are out of phase, running 6-month or 12-month totals can even out imbalances.

A fourth prerequisite is an awareness of the market. As already pointed out, all library activities are aimed at one market or another, however diffuse or remote in time, and it is useful to think in market terms, especially when planning a revenue earning service. As noted above, it is all too easy to design a new service, or prepare a publication, which has no real market while at the same time there exists a market that is being unsatisfied. User surveys have of course been conducted for many years, but market surveys need to be more pointed and precise, and above all to ascertain how much customers will be prepared to pay. Marketing requires a good deal of imagination and at the same time a fairly hard commercial approach.

An equally important prerequisite — perhaps the most important of all — is the ability to deliver. A market may be identified, and a service initiated, only to find that the resources of collections, money, equipment or above all staff are not adequate. The staff involved need to be equipped with commercial skills and attitudes, and the services have above all to be managed efficiently in the same way that a commercial industrial firm would manage its activities. Commercial and managerial skills and attitudes such as the construction of business plans, marketing and presentation have, like costing skills, not traditionally been taught as part of the education of librarians, so they have to be acquired, whether by self-education, by short courses or whatever. To deliver an amateurish service is not only to incur a high risk of failure but to damage prospects of future services and to discredit the library in the eyes of the government and possible partners.

Finally, since National Libraries receive funding from the government, political agreement is necessary before charged services are introduced. This should not take the form of an open dialogue between the National Library and the government; rather, the National Library should have its ideas and business plans thoroughly worked out in order to present a convincing case.

Products and Services which can be Charged

To what activities is revenue raising applicable? Publications are an obvious one, already mentioned. The full costs of publications need to be determined, and then decisions need to be made as to whether all or some of these should be recovered. For example, bibliographic publications may not recover their full costs on the grounds that the catalogue entries would have been made anyway for the benefit of the National Library itself or that this is a core non-recoverable function, so that the published bibliography can be regarded as a spin-off. Also, some publications may be produced for reasons of publicity or advertising, or simply to help people understand and use the library; these would normally be free.

Bibliographic services are also an obvious category for charging, because they bring efficiency benefits in the form of greater productivity to libraries. They may consist merely of the national bibliography in machine-readable form accessible online; or they may involve the supply of catalogue records to libraries by downloading; or they may involve full online search capabilities where added value considerations apply. Here again it has to be determined whether full costs should be recovered, and if not precisely what costs should be recovered.

Document supply is a third fairly obvious category. In some countries there is a strong feeling that interlibrary lending should be free, but this is doubtful even if it occurs on a small scale, and impossible to sustain if it is on a large scale, as in the case of the British Library. Here there is a choice between charging direct costs, direct costs plus overheads, or direct costs and overheads plus the cost of acquiring and maintaining the collection itself. The collection may be regarded as a national good for which charging is not appropriate, or it may be decided, pragmatically rather than on principle, to charge rather more than full direct costs in order to help maintain the collections. In a decentralized system where the National Library joins other types of libraries, which have varying funding sources, in constituting the 'national resource', the recovery of some collection costs may compensate for the use of individual collections on a national basis.

The newest areas of charged services are so called value-added information services. Here the user (whether an individual or an institution) would have a choice between searching the collections himself to satisfy his information needs, or in effect contracting the library to do the searching for him, probably more effectively, certainly more quickly and efficiently; the user would in fact be paying the library for doing what he did not want to do himself or felt he could not do. Simple queries requiring 5 or 10 minutes of staff time would not be charged for, if only because it would be uneconomic to do so, but any query requiring more than, say, 15 minutes of staff time would be charged for. The real difficulty in these services is determining the line between basic and value-added services. Within information services the line will differ between libraries, depending upon factors such as the library's accessibility and the nature of its clientele.

Both in the British Library and the National Library of New Zealand charges are made for business information services, since a clear market has been identified here and it has been shown that users are willing to pay. In New Zealand, SATIS markets itself clearly as a value-added service by emphasizing the range of sources, the availability of professional expertise which saves the client time and effort, and the provision of an all-inclusive information service limited only by the budget of the client. Costing information services is particularly difficult, since they are very rarely discrete areas of activity that can be separated clearly from other services, particularly where overheads and the costs of collections are concerned.

Charged services are not the only means of raising money. Appeals to industry and charitable funding bodies may bring some success, though this is not a reliable way of compensating for continuing deficiencies in government funding because regular sums cannot be expected. They are more useful for sponsoring specific activities, such perhaps as the retrospective conversion of a catalogue or the publication of a work (such as the catalogue of a special collection) with a small market.

Strong as the arguments may be for revenue earning of one kind or another, it must be made clear that large sums of money cannot be expected for some years, if at all. The extent to which revenue can compensate for deficiencies in government grants may therefore be quite small. Few National Libraries are in a position to operate document supply or bibliographic services on a large scale, or for that matter to produce many profitable publications; and even in the case of the most developed National Libraries, the money to be earned from information services is not likely to be large. This does not of course invalidate the argument that revenue earning can help to keep services going that are already in existence or enable new ones to be started that could not otherwise get off the ground. However, a National Library that is asked or challenged by its government to earn substantial sums of money needs to be very cautious indeed in its response; and if its government points out that another National library is already earning a quarter of its keep the different circumstances may need to be pointed out. For example, much the biggest money earner in the British Library is the document supply service, which few if any other National Libraries are in a position to emulate. (For interest, the breakdown of earned income in 1987/88 was roughly 10 million pounds sterling document supply, 4 million pounds sterling publications and 3 mil-

lion pounds sterling bibliographic services; seminars, information services, etc contributed minor sums).

Issues and Problems of Charging

One major question is who should pay for products or services. The National Library should be clearly aware of the possible impact its charges may have upon end users, if libraries decide or are forced to pass these on to their own clients. One solution to this problem is to distinguish between the funders and the providers of services. This market theory in the delivery of social services is supposed to provide greater efficiency and consumer choice when applied to areas such as education. To take an example that is not too remote from reality, the funds that are currently provided by the government to support a National Library's document supply function would be distributed among the users of the service, who would then be free either to purchase document supply services or to use the funds on acquisition or whatever activity best met their needs.

For publications there is no problem, since they will be bought by libraries or individuals as they wish. Bibliographic services are used mostly by libraries for their own benefit, but they can of course be used on behalf of individual users, and the local library then has to decide whether this is part of its normal and reasonable service or whether it is some kind of extra service for which payment should be made. The decision may depend on the type of library and the type of needs served; for example, an industrial researcher carrying out a search on a bibliographic database for the purposes of his everyday work would surely not be charged by his firm's library, while an amateur historian using a public library for the same purpose might well be.

As for document supply, in some countries the argument as to whether the user or library should pay is almost as heated as the argument as to whether libraries should be charged in the first place. Since a library that charged its users for documents it obtained from elsewhere would in effect be penalizing them for its own deficiencies of selection and acquisition, it does not seem reasonable to charge, but this is an issue which the local library should determine rather than the National Library.

Similar arguments apply to information services. In the case of business and science, most or much of the use will be institutional, whereas in the humanities and social sciences it is likely to be individual. The reasonable principle here is whether the user has a choice or not: so long as the individual has a real option as to whether to search for himself or to pay the library for doing it for him, there is no conflict of principle involved.

Not mentioned above among the prerequisites, but important for some types of service, is the question of pump priming. If, for example, a business information service is being started from scratch, investment has to be made in collections, equipment and staff before any money is earned at all, and it may be two years before day to day costs are being recovered, let alone the initial costs. If money is short, as it usually is, a particularly good case has to be made for such services. The only convincing way to make such a case is to prepare a business plan looking forward, say, four or five years and detailing for each year projected expenditure and income. A business plan would need to show, for example, that day to day costs would be recovered at the end of the first or second year, at the end of the third year a contribution would have been made to the initial investment, and at the end of the fifth year all the costs would have been recovered and the service would be going into profit. It might of course be decided that the initial investment should be written off on the grounds that the activity is something the National Library should be doing so long as the running costs were recovered. This is the sort of issue that needs to be clarified with the government before a service is initiated.

Payment mechanisms also have to be decided. Many units of service are so small that to recover costs individually would be impossibly expensive; indeed, the cost of recovering the costs would be greater than the money gained. This is so in the case of bibliographic records and document supply. There are several ways of dealing with this: to work in units of 50 or 100 rather than one, to have annual subscriptions from which amounts are deducted as services are given, and so on. Decisions also need to be made whether payment is made in advance, as it is in the case of the British Library Document Supply Service, or after the service has been given, as in the case of publications other than serials; this will partly depend on whether purchasers are allowed to pay money in advance, as in many countries libraries are not.

The National Library also has to decide whether to go it alone with particular charged services or to work in cooperation with the private sector. For example, it might be sensible to work with a commercial publisher in the case of publications, since he would have marketing and distribution expertise and facilities not available to the National Library. The publisher would also be in a better position to assess the market for particular publications. Bibliographic services can be offered through database hosts, which again will be prepared to market them. Automation offers a number of alternatives, from true joint ventures to bureau operations or facilities management.

The greatest scope for cooperation is probably in the area of information services. These can be given direct to users or through information brokers who exploit the National Library's collections on behalf of clients. Since the information broker has to make a profit in order to survive, he has more incentive for developing the market and expanding the service than the National Library has, and he certainly has more detailed knowledge of his special market. A number of options are available, including the establishment of trading companies for cost-recovery activities; the National Library could own the trading company, which would operate on true commercial lines, including the freedom to pay appropriate salaries and wages outside the framework of standard public scales. Alternatively, a service could be totally contracted out, but this would loosen the National Library's involvement and responsibility for it, and probably do little or nothing to bring in money that could be used for other activities. In all of these cases the National Library must make sure that it has the competence to negotiate with the commercial sector on equal terms, otherwise it may lose out badly.

Not only must the Library have commercial competence, but it must be free of bureaucratic constraints which can tie its hands in ways that can make efficient operation of a charged service virtually impossible, particularly if it is in competition with the private sector. Quick responses and decisions may be needed, and they cannot always await official permission or the observance of bureaucratic procedures. It must be made very clear to the government that if it wishes the National Library to earn money it cannot expect it to do so with its hands tied. Here both the wider external government and internal constraints may hobble initiative. Years of entrenched bureaucratic attitudes and structures which are designed to tightly control budgetary inputs or to diffuse responsibility can lead to conflicts with freer and more commercial methods.

Disadvantages of Charging

A number of issues and technical problems have been mentioned above. There are in addition several possible disadvantages that have to be faced.

The first of these is the element of risk. As with any commercial venture, the market, however carefully researched, is very rarely certain, and some failures are likely. In the case of a large commercial operation the failure of one product does not matter very much, but in the case of a National Library with limited resources even a small failure could be damaging, both politically and to the staff involved.

Parallel to the risk of failure is the risk of exceptional success. A government that believes that commercial activities should be in the private sector may well suggest total privatization for a commercially profitable operation run by a National Library. The case will very rarely be clear-cut, because all services are eventually based on the collections, whose cost is most unlikely to be covered, but the government may still suggest that, even if the collections are regarded as a public good, the actual service should be handed over (or possibly sold) to the private sector. The government may not be the only body interested: the private sector is likely to look with keen interest on a commercially profitable activity, and may seek to buy it out. Such an offer can be very tempting to a National Library that is hard up for funds, and even more to a government, even though in the longer term the National Library may make a profit that can be fed into other operations.

Success might also lead a government to oblige its National Library to concentrate on revenue-earning activities to the detriment of non-commercial aspects. Equally seriously, it may lead the National Library itself to concentrate excessively on commercial activities. There is a whole set of problems associated with this issue. One is the danger of imbalance and distortion within the National Library itself, with the staff involved in such activities as collection building and preservation feeling under-privileged and under-valued compared with the 'commercial' staff. This need not happen, and it is the responsibility of top management to make sure it does not, but the danger nevertheless exists. Another danger is that the National Library will fall into two quite different parts: one devoted to 'basic' services, the other to 'commercial' services. The clash between the ethos of the two parts could be severe. On the other hand, if properly managed, not only can profits from the commercial operations be used to support the basic operations, but the

enterprising attitudes that the commercial staff will need to acquire can be shared with the non-commercial staff; it is possible to be enterprising without being commercial, and if libraries had been more enterprising in offering their basic services in the past users would have been much better served. A well managed and sensitive commercial operation could have a beneficial effect on the whole National Library.

Sponsored activities raise other problems, for a sponsoring body, such as an industry, will expect to gain something from its money in the way of publicity. Not all National Libraries will feel easy about telling the world that a catalogue of incunabula has been partly paid for by a tobacco firm, to take a perhaps rather extreme example. With commonsense on the part of the National Library and sensitivity on the part of the funding body no serious problem should arise, but the cumulative effect on its image if a National Library is seen as a kind of advertising agency cannot be ignored.

Wider Issues

All of the above demonstrates that the National Library needs to be absolutely clear about its goals and objectives, and about the balance between commercial and non-commercial operations. It may be that past objectives and functions have to be redefined in the light of revenue raising, but this does not mean that the time-honoured functions of collecting and preserving the nation's heritage of published material are any less valid than they ever were. Nor does it mean that scholars and others should not have direct access to the collections free. The National Library must however define precisely what should not be charged for, and why not; what should be charged for but subsidized; and what should be fully charged for. IFLA's Section of National Libraries might well try to reach a consensus on this question, in particular to marshall the arguments why some activities and operations should not be charged for.

The effect of charging on other libraries cannot be ignored. Not only does revenue raising change the perception of the National Library by other libraries, by the private information sector and by the public generally, but it may well affect what they do. Libraries in the UK have naturally been concerned about the effect on their budgets of increased costs of British Library services, but more recently public libraries were especially worried lest charging for such activities as business information services should be used as a precedent to push them too towards charging. They are indeed being pushed in this direction, but not because of the British Library, which merely happened to anticipate a trend. It is fair to say that the British Library's behaviour is regarded increasingly with a mixture of suspicion and admiration: suspicion as to whether it is entirely appropriate, but admiration for its boldness.

In New Zealand, librarians' responses to a consultants' report on the National Library's financial basis raised issues that would be common to any discussion of charging within a publicly funded environment. The introduction of more rigorous charging by the National Library for its services to libraries could result in the imposition of direct user charges by the recipient library to recoup its costs. There were fears too that charging would also upset long standing cooperative arrangements, particularly in interlending. Charging was seen as inimically opposed to the provision of access and availability and therefore contrary to the principles of the library community. Libraries were not considered an appropriate field for the exercise of financial market signals. Charging could also reduce the national Library's user libraries to the status of commercial clients.

Responses such as these cannot be ignored; but nor can they or should they block all movement towards a more commercial mode of operation for National Libraries. What they do indicate is that any National Library taking steps in this direction must take care to work out the implications for the whole library system of the country before precipitate action is taken, and to inform and consult other libraries as soon and as fully as possible.

Conclusion

National Librarians can regard revenue raising as at best a painful necessity, to be resisted and postponed as long as possible; as a thoroughly desirable thing in itself, to be entered into with enthusiasm; or as a not undesirable development, to be approached with care but without reluctance. What is clear is that revenue raising is already changing National Libraries in some fundamental ways: their attitudes, their image, their processes, their skills, their independence, and their leadership of the nation's libraries.

39-NAT-3-E

THE END OF ALL AND FOREVER
On the Acquisition Policies of National Libraries and the Future of Legal Deposit Material

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— Every gambler knows
that the secret to survival
is knowing what to throw away
and knowing what to keep —
D. Schlitz (The Gambler)

At the IFLA meeting in Brighton in 1988, Maurice B. Line presented a paper for the section of National Libraries titled: "National Libraries in a time of change."[1] The paper identified a number of challenges for the national libraries. The author in particular points out that the debate over the role and the functions of national libraries is gradually changing in nature, and that we should really be concerned with the performance of national library functions. Will these functions in the future be best carried out by a single national library, or would it be by some sort of national cooperative scheme involving many different institutions? Maurice Line also points out that the functions themselves should not remain unchallenged. For example, it should not be assumed that all national imprints should be acquired, still less that they should all be retained permanently: nor that all publications should be described by records or equal level and quality in the national bibliography. (Maurice B. Line: National Libraries in a time of change. IFLA Journal No 1 1988.)

This paper will try to follow up some of the thoughts presented by Maurice Line, and it will in particular examine some aspects of national libraries and their acquisition policies. The focus will be on the legal deposit material. How this material has been dealt with in the past, and how it should be dealt with today and tomorrow. The main message in this paper is the following: There is a great need for reevaluation of the old "all and forever-doctrine" that has been the guiding principle so far for national libraries and their acquisition policies. Today no national library should pray or pretend that they cover all material of national interest and that they will be able to keep it forever. To cope with the information explosion of today, and even more of that tomorrow, we should consider new standards for the handling of legal deposit material. For instance, a representative sampling of the traditional printed material and perhaps also for various types of new information carriers. A major problem will obviously be to find suitable definitions as to what should be collected, how it should be kept and made available, and also for how long, in the original form, or transferred to some other storage medium. This brings up the necessity of a weeding policy also for national libraries.

The status of the national library will normally reflect the status of other national institutions, as well as the general economic and political situation of the nation. It is important to bear in mind that the national library, though created in a special national setting, will also very much be part of an international context which more and more influences every nation and its national library. More and more the national library must be seen as an integral part of the nations library and information system, and not just as a separate institution — however, old or important it may be.

The world economy, the national economy and how the work of the national library is perceived by the authorities (in position to secure or withdraw funding) and also the perception by the general public — these are all factors that will be determining the future role of the national library. From this comes my first observation: A national library in the conventional form is no longer a self evident truth. The capitalist countries and even the social democratic and the communist ones, are all looking for economic justifications in the various operations run by the state. According to the new gospel, such operations should be profit-making or at least recovering their own costs — (and if they are, they could as well be operated as private enterprises) — and consequently more and more libraries are looking around to find ways of generating income. A good example here is The British Library. Some 25% of the income for The British Library is today generated by sales of goods and services, or to quote Rosa Vallejo at the IFLA meeting in Tokyo 1986. She said that "The kind of financial support required from governments to finance rapid growth of information institutions will be slow in coming, because of insufficient awareness of their importance and value for society." And she foresaw a development

"towards a conglomeration of libraries, either in cooperative or coordinated structures."[2]

I am not saying that this is wrong, but one observation is of course that the world of the national library is changing dramatically, and as I see it, this is only the beginning. I think it is extremely important that a national state through its national library — alone or as part of a wider system — accumulates the information generated in all fields of life, to be properly stored and made available for present and future use. Not only will this prevent us from re-inventing the wheel over and over again, but it will also help us grow as a nation among other nations. With a national identity and a national culture as our contribution to the many faceted developments of the "global village" we all are living in together, whether we like it or not. And those among us looking eagerly for a fast buck and measuring everything with the yardstick of the dollar or the rubel, they may not have the patience or the understanding for the long range effects and possibilities in such a preservation programme for the information and cultural aspects of our national heritage. All over the world the scalpel of economy seems to be preparing for operations that could easily lead to cultural lobotomy. I can very well understand my colleagues in Australia when they in their plan for the national library towards the year 2000 say that: "A crucial need will remain to develop an effective method of convincing the parliament of the value to the nation of the national library's work."[3] So, we need to strengthen our efforts in creating a national system of collecting information, storing and disseminating it. This can obviously be done in many different ways, but the national library should — at least in my opinion — play an important part in such developments. A basic foundation in these developments have been and most likely will be the legal deposit material. Let us take a closer look at this concept and see how it all came about.

Even though there are many differences between the various national libraries of the world, the main task for most national libraries has been to collect and preserve and make available the national imprint, that is to handle printed material in traditional form. It is therefore important to keep in mind that legal deposit came into being at the time when the printed word on paper dominated the scene as the one and only information carrier. Add to this that the institution of libraries through the centuries has always been handling books, manuscripts or the like. This is the tradition of libraries, this is how we tend to perceive the world, and this perception of the world is by and large reflected in most of our legal deposit legislation of today. And when we start to examine closer a legislation for legal deposit in various countries, we will find that more often than not the material in question is printed material, and it is to be delivered from printers and their print shops. In our world of today, where new technology opens for a possible print shop in every basement, this legislation is hopelessly outdated even for keeping up with the printed material. And still libraries tend to think about the information explosion in terms of an increasing amount of print on paper. Which is of course true, but then again it gives us only a part of a total picture. May be we do this from tradition, or because it is easier to visualize and because we more familiar with this kind of material. However, we tend to forget that the real explosion has been in the fields of new media and new technology. Legislation of legal deposit today will have to consider the total information output of the nation and find ways to cope with this.

Let us then assume that the national library was not invented to collect books and printed material only. The main reason for its creation was to protect the national culture and the national identity, and to provide the basis for insight and research concerning all facets of the society in past, present and for the future. Today the national cultural heritage is presented in many other forms than the printed word on paper. And in addition, the flow of traditional printed material has never been wider and faster. Consequently, the situation for the national library will be that not only does it fail to receive all of the printed material, but normally nothing of all the other information carriers will be collected because this material is not mentioned anywhere in the present legislation. If the objective for a country still is to collect information regardless of what form used for presentation, there is little comfort in the national library saying that the other material is none of their business. Particularly if no other national agency looks after it. And the suspicion that much of the printed material also gets lost, makes it even less comforting. Now, I hear some of you saying "but we can't do all this" - and I will agree with you. But, I will also add — we should be more in the frontline for the creation of good national systems to get this organized in a better way. Either that be with the national library in the center or with the national library as a vital part of a wider national structure under the leadership of some other agency. "If you are burning all your bridges, you better be a good swimmer" - they saying goes. I do not think we need to burn our bridges, but because of the increased traffic, we probably need to build many new ones. And besides, I happen to believe that our profession and our institutions are among the better swimmers in this pool of information anyhow.

Let me at this point share with you very briefly the example of Norway. This country is now in the process of getting a new legislation for legal deposit. The committee preparing the proposals for a new act has underlined that: "It is of primary importance to our cultural heritage to extend legal deposit to comprise paper documents which are reproduced by other methods and documents in other media than paper, to bring the arrangement embrassed of the present situation with regard to the dissemination of culture in the broadest sense. The resources needed will be small and the investment profitable, compared with the values lost for want of such arrangements."[4] Among the recommendations of the committee we find that

- Legal deposit of paper documents be more closely defined and adapted to technical developments in methods of reproduction.
- Legal deposit be introduced to cover documents in other media, such as microforms, IDP-documents (machine readable information), sound recordings (grammophone records, cassetts, etc) photographs, films, videograms and broadcast material, when the documents are produced for a Norwegian market and thus made generally available by reproduction, distribution or other methods. Arrangements for these media should be worked out by analogy with those which apply for paper documents and adapted to the particular characteristics of each medium.
- The national library be organized in two main sections, one for paper documents etc and one for IDP-documents and sound- and visual media (sound recordings, broadcast material etc). This is to ensure the proper care of documents in all media. If all goes well, the new legislation will be made effective form first of January 1988.

This was the case of Norway. I know that several countries are working on similar proposals for their legal deposit legislation. In this work there seem to be a growing understanding that more important than completeness in the collection of printed material (the all and forever-doctrine), is a coordinated and comprehensive approach to the sum total of a countries information output covering the whole range of old and new information carriers. This underlines the question of comprehensiveness. As Maurice Line has pointed out: "Perhaps the most difficult criterium of all to establish and to use, is that of comprehensiveness as applied to the national collection and the national bibliography."[5] Or to put in another way — how do we know when a comprehensive collection is really comprehensive? No doubt, this will have a lot to do with politics and economy in the future. In addition to the statements mentioned earlier by Rosa Vallejo, it has been said that: "With growing conflict between the public sector and private enterprise, information is no longer free; and "high value" information will be available in digital form; and a world wide "mega-library" is emerging."[6]

So the running of the national library are today facing many of the same problems as other public enterprises funded basically by the tax payers money. If we divide the costs of the national library in three broad areas, personnel, buildings and collections, we will find that personnel and buildings will take a major percentage of the total. Space for new acquisition is a rare commodity in most national libraries. Together with conservation and preservation efforts that has gained more momentum the last years, this has opened up for the exploring of new ways to transfer both traditional printed material and some of the new information carriers from its original form to a more compact and space saving storage medium. This search for new methods of storing information in a non-conventional way, more compact on less space and with better access, not least through electronic devices, may lead to the answers we are looking for. As with the comprehensiveness problem mentioned above, this of course raises the following question: What needs to be kept in the original form and what should be transferred into another storage medium, and which medium should that be?

I have heard already many times the arguments against such a procedure from scholars and fellow librarians. They will sound like: Who shall make the rules, who will be deciding what we shall keep and what we shall throw away, how can we be sure that we are not throwing away material that will turn out to be valuable in a hundred years from now, why should we bother with other media when it is more than difficult to cope with the conventional printed material? So many questions, and right now, I do not have an easy and clear cut answer to any of them. But I think they can be found, and I also

think that they will tend to differ slightly from one country to another. And my main argument will be, that I would prefer that we as librarians try to agree on the criterias, because if we don't, then I am afraid that other parts of society will make those decisions based on political and economical reasoning in which there may be little or no room for the arguments of the librarians and the scholars. Creating change and understanding within a national bureaucracy is a very slow process. As important as being collectors, storekeepers and providers of information, the national library should devote much attention to the evaluation of the total information services available to the nation and to help identify gaps in the information provision. Based on an extended concept of the national bibliography, and not least convincing politicians that an investment in a national information system is good value for money.

My conclusion in this paper will then be as follows.

1. **The completeness fixation**
   For too long we have been telling ourselves that we are getting the majority of the nations information output through the legislation for legal deposit (which in most countries today is hopelessly outdated and based on the situation at the time when the print on paper was the dominant information carrier). We should realize the fact that we are not only loosing a lot of the print on paper-material, as well as keeping for too long much of the material that we do get. This completeness fixation related to print on paper and conventional library material, has made us forget the raison d'etre for the national library as such, which as I see it, is not to collect printed material per se, but rather to collect important information regardless of form.

2. **The all and forever-doctrine**
   The belief that it is still possible and also desirable to collect all types of printed material issued for the public and keep it forever in the original form. In the most extreme cases this seems to have developed into a passion for the so called grey litterature and ephemera. To quote Maurice Line once again: "The world of grey litterature is extensive as well as nebulous." Thus we can find amongst many librarians a love-hate relation to this material.

Therefore, the national library should do as many people in business have been doing before them, ask the question: What is our business? If the answer is that we should still be collecting, storing and disseminating print on paper and nothing else, so be it. As for myself, I doubt very much that this is the case. I think our business is to handle information, and today this is not the question of just print on paper. I enjoy visiting national parks of which my own country have a number of quite spectacular ones, known for their scenic beauty. Still I would rather not see the national library added to the list of such national monuments.

Based on its experience as one of the major information handling agents from the print on paper-period, the national library should be well equipped to serve the nation as the central institution or as part of a national network to draw the necessary maps, collect and store the necessary samples as well as providing convenient roads through the jungle of different information carriers, that together contains the sum total of our national heritage and our national identity. And also providing the links and gateways whereby our national contribution can communicate with the many international market-places in our global village.

In these matters the national library may like to consider the advice of the gambler, saying that the secret to survival is knowing what to throw away and knowing what to keep. But, before we set out to establish the necessary rules and definitions, we will have to adjust ourselves to being selective in our acquisitions and to apply a weeding policy. Many of you may not like this, and sometimes I don't like it myself. But I see no alternatives. More storage space, more personnel and more money (even if we were lucky enough to get it) for our conventional library practices is not the answer alone. If we could agree on this, the next step could be to work out principles for knowing what to keep and knowing what our business should be.

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016-PAR-1-E

INTERNATIONAL CO-OPERATION IN THE CREATION OF A LIBRARY AND DOCUMENTATION SERVICE FOR THE NATIONAL ASSEMBLY OF DJIBOUTI

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ABSTRACT

The paper describes an example of international co-operation in creating a parliamentary library and documentation service for Djibouti from initiation of the concept, through the various stages of planning, seeking support, training staff, provision of equipment and material, to the official opening in January 1988.

INSTITUTIONAL FRAMEWORK FOR THE PROJECT

The Inter-Parliamentary Union and the CIDP

The Inter-Parliamentary Union is a world-wide organization of parliamentarians, which, among its objectives of advancing international peace and co-operation, also aims at the firm establishment and development of representative institutions. With this aim in mind, the Union created the International Centre for Parliamentary Documentation in 1965, as an integral part of the Union's Secretariat. The Centre (known in short as the "CIDP" from its initials in French), systematically collects and disseminates information on the structure and operation of all national Parliaments. It also encourages and itself conducts, comparative studies of Parliaments.

The activities of the CIDP were expanded in 1973 by the setting up of the Union's Technical Co-operation Programme intended to assist the Parliaments of new and developing countries to strengthen their infrastructure and improve their working methods. Since that time the Programme has examined 36 requests for project assistance. Of these, 11 have been completed or the project requirements met through the mediation of the Union, and eight are currently in progress or under consideration. The remainder were either not followed through by the requesting Parliament or fell into abeyance through dissolution of the Parliament concerned. Fifteen projects refer to library or documentation services and of these, no fewer than six are currently in progress or under consideration.

The most recent project to be completed concerned the creation of a library and documentation service for the National Assembly of Djibouti. The library was officially opened in January this year and it is this project which is described below.

DJIBOUTI

National Independence

Djibouti became an independent nation on 27 June 1977 following a referendum earlier in the same year. Under the terms of the referendum the members of the national legislature, (the Territorial Chamber of Deputies) elected shortly before independence, continued their mandate as members of the unicameral Parliament renamed the "National Assembly" (Assemblee nationale). The first elections following independence were held in May 1982 when 65 members were elected for a term of five years.

The National Assembly

The National Assembly normally holds two sessions per year, each of two months duration. Between sessions a part of the powers of the Assembly are delegated to the Permanent Committee of 14 members. There are also six "general" committees, having seven to ten members each, which cover the following areas:

— social development and environmental protection;
— foreign affairs;
— national defence;
— economy, budget and planning;
— the Legislature and general administration of the Republic; and
— production and trade.

Project to Create a Library for the National Assembly
The new building to house the National Assembly set aside space for a library. In April 1983 the Head of the Parliamentary Delegation of the Republic of Djibouti to the 69th Conference of the IPU, Mr. Djama Djilal Djama, made a preliminary proposal for a project to help establish a library in this available space. At that time, the Assembly had no staff trained in library or documentation techniques, nor did it possess any library equipment.

LAUNCHING THE PROJECT

Initial Moves
In order for the project to get under way it was essential to assure a minimum of financial support, at least for the initial stages. The first approach was to the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP), however, no funds were available that year for a project of this kind. Support was then requested from the United Nations Educational Scientific and Cultural Organization, which also found itself unable to offer assistance at that time. In the event, funding was obtained from various other sources as will be described later. An attempt was made meanwhile in Djibouti to draw up a detailed inventory of requirements for the projected library and documentation service. Advantage was also taken of a conference in Geneva of the IPU to arrange discussions between various parties including representatives of the Cameroon and Swedish Parliaments who offered assistance in the training of staff.

Expert Mission to Evaluate Requirements
It soon became clear that to fully define requirements, expert advice would be needed on various aspects of the projected library and documentation service. Furthermore, this advice would need to be given in the full knowledge of the local situation and work requirements of the National Assembly. Thus in the early summer of 1984, the Secretariat of the Union began to look around for a person qualified and available to undertake an expert mission to Djibouti as well as for finance to mount such a mission. At the same time the National Assembly began to seek suitable persons who could be trained to staff the library. Preliminary estimates of the number of staff required were three librarians, two documentalists and two archivists. These estimates were subsequently revised in the light of the report of the expert mission.

In November 1984 the Italian Parliament generously offered to provide the services and meet the expenses of an expert to go to Djibouti. The expert designated was Dr. Fiama Arno-Sebastiani, Adviser to the Library of the Italian Chamber of Deputies, who undertook a mission of one week in December 1984. The mission was preceded and followed by briefings at the Headquarters of the IPU in Geneva.

Mission Report and Project Specification
In her report on the mission, Dr. Arno-Sebastiani made various recommendations for equipment, material, personnel and training to establish a library and documentation service adequate to meet the most pressing of the National Assembly's needs. Preference was given to the idea of starting with a modest establishment which, whilst satisfying immediate requirements, would be capable of expansion in the light of experience, rather than to embark from the outset on the more difficult task of setting up a large organization to provide a comprehensive range of services.

The mission's recommendations, although proposing a smaller establishment than that originally envisaged, were agreed, with the acceptance of some small modifications, as the basis for a formal "Project Specification and Plan of Action." The first issue of the Project Specification was prepared in March 1985 but was revised the following month to take account of some changes concerning staff and the proposed plan of action. A copy of this final document appears at Annex "A."

Recruitment of Staff
Persons with the requisite professional background are rare in Djibouti. Thus, from the beginning, intensive training following recruitment had been expected to form an essential part of the project. With this in mind, the qualities sought in the recruits were intelligence, enthusiasm and aptitude for library and documentation work, as well as educational qualifications demonstrating a capacity to readily take advantage of training, rather than formal qualifications in librarianship. Some knowledge and experience of library and documentation activities would of course be an advantage.

Preliminary planning had envisaged the possibility of tertiary studies being carried out at the "Ecole de bibliothecaires, archivistes et documentalistes" (EBAD), at the University of Dakar. Initial contact had already been made with the Director of EBAD in February 1985 to ascertain the kind of courses being offered and the conditions of entry.

In March 1985 the National Assembly of Djibouti announced that two young men had been designated to undergo training to form the core of the library staff. A third recruit was to join them later.

STAFF TRAINING

The National Assembly of Djibouti proposed that the more senior of the two recruits, Mr. Hassan Guelleh Guedid, would take up duties as Head Librarian following satisfactory completion of training at EBAD. Meanwhile, arrangements were made as part of the project for him and his colleague, Mr. Iltireh Djama Guire, Assistant Librarian designate, to gain practical experience in various libraries.

Practical Experience in Europe
Through the co-operation and generosity of various bodies, the following schedule of practical training and experience was completed:

- 5 to 25 May 1985, training in Sweden, including a period at a school for librarians, sponsored by the Swedish Institute, as well as practical experience in the Swedish Parliament;
- 26 to 28 May 1985, visit to the IPU Headquarters and the CIDP;
- 29 May 1985, visit to the Swiss Parliament in Bern;
- 30 May to 26 July 1985, intensive course of studies and practical experience in the Library of the Italian Chamber of Deputies.

The project is indebted to the various bodies mentioned above; to the Swedish Institute for paying travel costs for the training exercise as well as subsistence in Sweden, also to the Italian Government which, by providing a scholarship through the Centro Analisi Sociale, made the studies in Italy possible.

Practical Experience in Canada
The two staff members of the projected library and documentation centre already recruited were joined by Mr. Fahmi Mohamed Warsama, Assistant Archivist designate, and arrangements were made between the Parliaments of Djibouti and Canada for him to obtain, in the autumn of 1985, a short period of experience in handling parliamentary documentation in Canada.

Tertiary Studies in Senegal
While these activities were going forward, plans were being advanced for Mr. Hassan Guelleh Guedid to follow a two-year course at EBAD, starting in November 1985. Part of the course fees were covered by an individual anonymous donation. The balance of the fees, as well as board and lodging, medical insurance and travel costs were generously provided by a scholarship offered by the Italian Ministry of Foreign Affairs. As part of the course, but during the long University recess at the end of the first year, the student carried out a two-month period of practical experience kindly offered by the library of the Arthur Rimbaud Cultural Centre in Djibouti.

Practical Experience in an African Parliamentary Context
It will be noted from the foregoing that, with the exception of Mr. Hassan Guelleh Guedid who had been able to spend some time during his course at Dakar in the library of the National Assembly of Senegal, none of the trainees had had the advantage of direct contact with the work of a library and documentation service in the context of an African Parliament. As indicated earlier, the possibility of obtaining this most valuable kind of experience was offered by the National Assembly of Cameroon which kindly agreed to accept Mssrs Iltireh Djama Guire and Fahmi Mohamed Warsama for a six-week period in August/September 1986. All costs of this training experience were met through the generosity of the French Ministry for Co-operation (Ministere francais de la cooperation) and thanks to the indispensable collaboration of the French Inter-Parliamentary Group.

It is of interest in this connection that in the mid-1970's a project was completed in the IPU's Technical Co-operation Programme to help develop the parliamentary library of the Cameroon. This same library was now in its turn helping to develop another parliamentary library.

EQUIPMENT

Requirements
At the outset, the prospective library and documentation service consisted of no more than a suite of empty rooms. Thus all the equipment needed had to be foreseen by the project. The expert mission took into consideration factors such as the space available, probable work load from the Assembly and likely demand for new and increased services and from them drew up a list of the equipment required to set up the service as a functioning and growing entity. This list furnished the basis for subsequent planning (see Annex "A," section 4).

The plan of the library and documentation centre showing equipment location appears at Annex "B." As can be seen, there is a separate reading room conveniently screened from distracting activities associated with the loans desk, the book storage area and the audio-visual room. Again to minimize disturbance, the interior of the shelving area is accessible only from the side furthest from the reading room. The floor is covered with sound-absorbing material and the whole library is air conditioned.

Thanks to the close co-operation of the Italian Chamber of Deputies and the generosity of the Italian Government and the Centro Analisi Sociale, the required equipment was provided and delivered to Djibouti in March 1987. The Centro Analisi Sociale also sent an expert the following month to help set up the electronic equipment for the audio-visual room.

BOOKS AND PERIODICALS

Works Required

As the National Assembly of Djibouti had not previously possessed a library, there existed at the start of the project no organized stock of books or periodicals. Thus one of the objectives of the periods of practical training and experience was to help compile a list of books and periodicals to constitute the library's initial stock. This stock was to include standard references, works relating to Djibouti and neighbouring countries, works concerned with international affairs of particular relevance for Djibouti, and material bearing on the work of the National Assembly.

Minimum Initial Stock

The Project Specification had envisaged that a minimum stock of about 1500 books would be sufficient to launch the library. Thereafter, policy for the library should include adequate budgetary provision to add regularly to the library's acquisitions. By the end of 1985, the Head Librarian designate and the Assistant Librarian designate had between them compiled a list of 1300 titles. Before Christmas 1986 this had been augmented by a further 528 titles. Twenty-five periodicals had also been selected for purchase.

Delivery

The cost of the initial stock was accepted by the Italian Government and it was delivered to Djibouti in the Spring of 1987 through the good offices of the Centro Analisi Sociale. With the availability of the card index material and other library equipment, it now became possible to make a start on the task of cataloguing and arranging the works, ready for the formal opening of the library and documentation service which took place in January 1988.

THE HUMAN FACTOR

As with all initiatives large or small, the importance of the human factor in achieving a successful outcome can scarcely be overestimated. This is particularly true when barriers of language and cultural differences have to be surmounted. In the case of this project no fewer than eight countries were involved, employing between them at least six languages.

In the event, lively co-operation in terms of good will, interest, encouragement and commitment of time and effort, was extended at the human level by so many individuals that it is not possible in this brief account to single out names for special mention. Suffice it to gratefully acknowledge the support given by all those who contributed including the Parliaments and Governments of Italy and France and the Parliaments of Cameroon, Canada, Senegal, Sweden and Switzerland. Thanks are also due to the Arthur Rimbaud Cultural Centre, the Centro Analisi Sociale, the Ecole de bibliothecaires, archivistes et documentalistes of the University of Dakar, and the Swedish Institute, not forgetting the anonymous donor from yet another country.

Finally, but not least, mention should be made of those individuals in the National Assembly of Djibouti by who's vision, unflagging interest and good humoured encouragement the project was brought to a successful conclusion.

February 1988

ANNEX A

Rev. 1
12 April 1985

IPU TECHNICAL CO-OPERATION PROGRAMME
CREATION OF A PARLIAMENTARY LIBRARY FOR THE NATIONAL ASSEMBLY OF DJIBOUTI
PROPOSED PROJECT SPECIFICATION AND PLAN OF ACTION

1. Objectives

The objective of the project is to establish a parliamentary library and documentation service, for the National Assembly of Djibouti, having the following functions:

- Provide a collection of general and specialised works relating to the principal aspects of the work of Parliament;
- provide newspapers and other current affairs material, maintaining them up to date through subscriptions;
- provide ready access to required material in the collection by an up-to-date catalogue and suitable index system;
- provide a documentation service to meet rapidly and accurately the requests of Members of Parliament for bibliographies, compilations, special studies and information on various topics.

2. Access

Persons having access to the library will be Members and staff of the Assembly, members of the Government and other persons specifically authorised by the President of the Assembly.

3. Premises

Two rooms are available in the new National Assembly building:

- Library and reading room — 10 m by 6 m; and
- Documentation Service — 8 m by 6 m.

4. Equipment to Establish the Library

The following equipment is required to establish the library as a functioning unit:

- 19 bookcases of standard dimension (2m high, 90 cm wide, 22 cm deep);
- 19 book ends;
- 1 display unit for periodicals;
- 4 reading desks each to accommodate 4 readers;
- 16 upright chairs for the reading desks;
- 1 table or counter for reception and information;
- 1 card index with 25 drawers
- 2 typewriters;
- 1 photocopier;
- 2 desks suitable for typing;
- 2 typing chairs;
- 1 trolley to transport books;
- 1 metal cupboard;
- 1 filing cabinet with hanging files.

The total cost of this equipment has been estimated at approximately 3,000,000 Djibouti Francs (US $16,760*). As far as possible it should be procured or manufactured locally. Equipment such as typewriters and photocopier should be models for which maintenance and repair services are available in Djibouti.

The Head Librarian should assess requirements for audio-visual equipment when a period of actual library operation has revealed the library's needs more clearly. This equipment may include:

- Slide projector;
- film projector;
- tape recorder;
- video recorder/player and visual display unit;
- micro-fiche reader and storage;
- record player.

Eventual provision may need to be made in the archives for storage of associated audio-visual records.

5. Initial Stock of Books and Periodicals

It has been estimated that the library will require an initial minimum stock of about 1,500 books. These should include:

- Standard reference works (encyclopaedia, dictionnaries);
- works from all sources relating to Djibouti (social, political, historical, economic, etc.);
- sources of information on neighbouring countries and on international affairs of particular relevance to Djibouti;
- material bearing on the work of the Assembly (records of debates, parliamentary procedure, basic legal texts, government and parliamentary reports, etc.);
- relevant publications of the United Nations Organisation and other international organisations (IPU documents and publications are provided free of charge)

To these should be added 15 to 20 appropriate periodicals and 4 to 5 newspapers.

The cost of this initial stock has been estimated at approximately 1,500,000 djibouti Francs (US $8,380) and 400,000 Djibouti Francs per annum (US $2,235) for subscription to the periodicals and newspapers.

6. Staff

An initial staff of two is foreseen comprising a Head Librarian, and an Assistant. Recruitment is to be as soon as possible with initial training of the personnel at the French Cultural Centre and the National Assembly in Djibouti. Qualifications and task description for these staff members appear in the Annex.

The personnel are to make a 3 week stay in Sweden funded by the Swedish Institute in May/June 1985 to gain experience with the Swedish Parliament and undertake a short course at a school for librarians. This will be followed by visits to the IPU Secretariat, the Swiss Parliament and possibly the Parliament of Cameroon. A course of 1 or 2 months has also been offered in Italy starting in June 1985. The first task on return to Djibouti will be to help co-ordinate the procurement of the equipment required, make an inventory of the books and papers already available to the Djibouti Parliamentary Library, and compile a bibliography of required works and periodicals. The budgetary requirements of the Library for the coming year should also be assessed and provision made for them in the Parliamentary estimates.

One of the staff members, who is the Head Librarian designate, is to undertake a training course of 2 years, starting October 1985, at the "Ecole de Bibliothecaires, Archivistes et Documentalistes" (EBAD) at the University of Dakar. Registration for the course costs 50,000 Fr.CFA (US $106) per year and subsidised board and lodging for one year 250,000 Fr.CFA (US $530).

LIBRARY OF THE DJIBOUTI NATIONAL ASSEMBLY PROFESSIONAL QUALIFICATIONS AND DUTIES OF THE STAFF

Head Librarian

Qualifications required of the Head Librarian include:

— General School Leaving Certificate or preferably university level qualifications, with a broad general background and, if possible, specialisation in legislative and/or economic fields;
— knowledge of Arabic, French, and a third language, preferably English;
— qualities of initiative and organisation;
— inclination towards bibliographic research;
— capacity to establish and maintain good personal relations;
— aptitude for management; and
— ability to type desirable.

Duties of the Head Librarian cover:

— Classification of books and periodicals and their entry into the catalogue;
— execution of the more complex research tasks;
— supervision of the work of preparing subject files, bibliographies and abstracts of newspapers and periodicals;
— maintenance of current knowledge of the work of the National Assembly, all aspects of the political, social and economic life of Djibouti, and of major international events;
— maintenance of good liaison with other documentation centres in Djibouti and elsewhere, particularly in Africa, as well as with local ministries and embassies;
— acquisition of information concerning relevant new publications in French, Arabic and other languages; and
— preparation of proposals for the purchase of new books and periodicals.

Assistant Librarian and/or Assistant Documentalist

Qualifications required of the Assistant Librarian and/or Assistant Documentalist include:

— Secondary education standard, referably general School Leaving Certificate or equivalent level of education;
— knowledge of Arabic, French and, if possible, a third language;
— ability to type;
— interest in library studies and in the specialised fields of the National Assembly Library;
— observant with sense of application, accuracy, and attention to detail.

Duties of an Assistant Librarian cover:

— Assistance to the Head Librarian as directed;
— classification and cataloguing of books;
— recording issues of periodicals;
— preparation of abstracts of periodicals; and
— routine administration and correspondence.

Duties of an Assistant Documentalist cover:

— General assistance to library users;
— provision of information;
— supervision of the reading room including correct storage of books and other documents;
— issuing and recovery of loans; and
— preparation, under the direction of the Head Librarian, of bibliographies, subject files, and research papers.

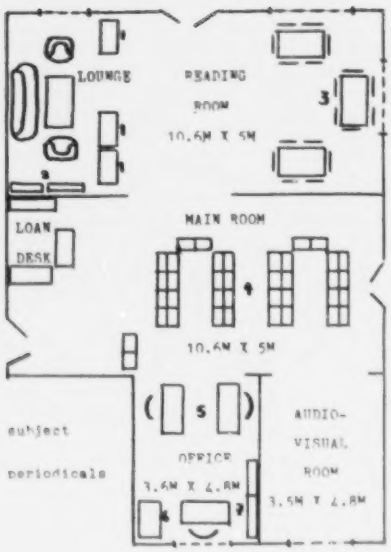
* At official exchange rate January 1985.

PROPOSED PLAN OF ACTION

Approx. Date 1985	Activity	Responsibility
March	Recruit Librarians and start their training. Seek expressions of interest from IPU member Parliaments in supporting the project. Member of the IPU Secretariat to visit EBAD.	National Assembly Djibouti delegation and IPU Secretariat in Lomé IPU
April	Confirm pledges of support from IPU member Parliaments and co-ordinate details.	IPU
May	Librarian trainees visit Sweden, IPU Secretariat and Swiss Parliament	National Assembly/ Swedish Institute/ Swedish Parl. IPU/Swiss Parl.
June	Study course in Italy	Italian Parliament/IPU
July	Course in Italy continues	Italian Parliament
	Reassess project progress and liaise with IPU to co-ordinate details of any additional requirements.	National Assembly/IPU
August	Prepare Library budget estimates for 1986	Library staff in Djibouti
September	Brief EBAD candidate and make preparations for studies at Dakar. Prepare report on project progress for IPU Executive Committee/Council in Ottawa.	National Assembly IUP
October	EBAD Course starts	
1985/86	Project development	National Assembly/IPU
1987	Tentative project evaluation	National Assembly/IPU

ANNEX B

SKETCH PLAN OF THE LIBRARY AND DOCUMENTATION CENTRE



Key:

1. Author, title and subject catalogues
2. Display units for periodicals
3. Reading tables
4. Bookcases
5. Office desks
6. Photocopier
7. Cupboards

040-PARL-2-E

A MODERN METAMORPHOSIS: RECENT DEVELOPMENT IN THE QUEENSLAND PARLIAMENTARY LIBRARY

Nick Bannenberg, *Parliamentary Librarian, Queensland Parliamentary Library*

It has been suggested that like the three 'R's' of education, there are three 'B's' basic to librarianship — Books, Bodies and Buildings. An inescapable addition underpinning this unholy trinity is an adequate Budget, for without sufficient funding none of the others can exist.

To quote an even broader cliche "All things are relative," and there are no accepted standards for Library services to legislatures. Each parliamentary institution itself determines the need for its particular circumstances. Hence to talk about "adequate funding," "acceptable Library services," or even "a reasonable staffing level" is merely to formulate parameters against which can be gauged the requirements of a specific parliament.

In a broad sense, democratically elected representative government, which is accepted by many Western Nations as an inalienable right, may be viewed even by some others who acknowledge the merit of the principles on which it is based, as a luxury, rather than a necessity, from a socio-economic viewpoint. Where a parliamentary form of government is established by a nation, the extent to which it is able to provide the various support systems to assist its parliamentarians will depend upon the perception of the utility of each, and the expense involved.

It is fundamental to a parliament to have one or more table officers for it to be able to function. It is highly probable that some administrative staff would also be necessary, and probable that before long records of debate in some form would be considered to be most desirable, especially if the society generally is literate.

The concept of a Library, or resource centre, to supply parliamentarians either passively of actively with an information source, is more likely than not to follow on the establishment of the basic services already referred to.

This paper should be viewed within the context of such broad generalisations. It does not purport to be a paradigm, but merely a brief description of how one of the six Australian State parliamentary libraries, over a period of fifteen years grew from what was, by contemporary standards, a quite small traditional information source for its Members, to a moderately sized, technologically based facility, offering a wide range of services in some depth.

The manner and extent of these changes is a reflection of the attitudes and pressures of Australian society during that period, but it is not indicative of anything other than the perceived needs of the parliamentarians for assistance in helping them carry out their duties more effectively.

On 18th August, 1972, Stuart Gunthorpe resigned from the position of Parliamentary Librarian due to ill health. It was not necessarily his fault that he left behind a system which was under severe strain, with a staff totalling eight persons crammed into two rooms which were shared with books, equipment and clientele. There was no extra room available within Parliament House, indeed Members were crammed twelve and thirteen to rooms which served as communal offices. There was a large backlog of books and pamphlets requiring cataloguing, and the amount of money available to purchase new books, serials and equipment had not been increased for a number of years. Most of the Members had been in the parliament for many years and expected the status quo to continue. Only a small proportion used the Library for purposes other than scanning newspapers and recreational reading.

The establishment consisted of five professional librarian positions and three others. Morale was low, and vacancies had been hard to fill.

For the incoming Librarian, the immediate concern was to break the books/bodies/buildings nexus which acted as a constraint on service. The mere fact that some change was proposed provided a lift in morale, and staff were actively involved in plans to re-organise and streamline existing services.

A fully costed five year plan was submitted to the Parliamentary Library Committee outlining what could be offered to Members given modest increases in personnel and seeking approval to make more effective use of space already in use by the Library. This was fully supported by the Committee, who resolved to actively lobby the Government to provide additional funding for staff and materials.

External factors provided an unexpected opportunity, when an old hotel directly opposite the Parliament was purchased by the Government to provide living accommodation for Parliamentarians. The ground floor was not intended for this purpose, and following an approach to the Government, was made available to the Library (and other parliamentary departments) for storage.

This permitted the amalgamation of scattered holdings, and enabled the large room above the Library to be cleared for storage of serials and newspapers as well as providing much wanted space for staff. These changes meant an enormous amount of physical as well as clerical work for every member of the staff, and were carried out in conjunction with normal duties.

The net result was that after fifteen months the main Library was stripped to essential reference material and the stack areas were logically organised, clean, and clearly labelled for the first time in many decades. Over the following eighteen months, this groundwork was consolidated by provision of a book lift between the upper and lower libraries, installation of new furniture to make more effective use of space in the main reading area, and linkage of the former cataloguing room (now converted to a reference serials room) to the main area by breaking through a brick wall two feet thick to construct a doorway.

The building part was now under control for the present, permitting room for staff expansion, but the nature of the accommodation indicated that this would only be an interim measure, until a new building could be constructed to relieve the pressures being experienced by all sections of the parliament.

Of course this activity was not taking place in isolation. In the first Annual Report to the Committee on implementation of the propositions outlined in the inaugural recommendation for change, a specific list of aims were presented.

SPECIFIC AIMS OF THE REFERENCE SERVICE

Concomitant with this general objective of supplying information by the efficient utilisation of available material, the reference service has several specific aims of vital concern to its function:

(1) To ensure that all requests whether reference or research (dependant on the nature of the enquiry) are geared to the time limit set by the member concerned. Any means where by accurate information can be tendered more speedily is of pressing importance to both parties especially where minimal time lapse is involved.

(2) To ascertain as accurately as possible the subject/s involved and the informational range required with due respect to the limitations imposed by the existing budget and facilities.

(3) To assess constantly, not only possible ways of obtaining information, but most importantly the organisation of it for efficient retrieval. This involves awareness of needs and current

inadequacies and lessons to be gained from one's own experience and experiments elsewhere. Staff must be fully aware of goals and guidelines enunciated by the Parliamentary Librarian and grasp the implications of such in their dealings with both members and other sections of the library staff on whom they are dependent.

(4) To recognise that demand can exist in the absence of pressure for a product or service because the consumer is not aware of any source of supply, and to employ every acceptable avenue to bring to members' attention ways in which the Reference Service may aid them.

(5) To engender and maintain a reputation for the service of a keen awareness of current affairs, a high degree of professional pride in providing the best possible service, complete confidentiality in dealings, and the unbiased approach to all requests essential to effective decision making. Any Reference Service so characterised will be assured of the complete confidence of members in its operations.

How these had been addressed during that period was outlined, referring especially to new services which had been introduced.

Provision of these had involved the reference and serial librarians in considerable extra work, some of it in their own time. As the effects began to be felt by the parliamentarians the climate for change became more favourable. The library was not only seen to be undergoing change (not all of it favourably received by all Members), but the usefulness of the new services began to have an impact. An index to Periodical Articles by subject, and incorporating abstracts, allowed access to the many journals and magazines which had hitherto been of limited use; the Newspaper Clippings service was expanded tenfold, and cuttings were laminated to protect and preserve them; an Index to Questions was introduced (really an index to answers, and to specific subject grievance debates) which for the first time meant that these could be effectively retrieved by subject and questioner.

As a result, the Committee was able to achieve success with its push for additional staff to enable these new services and further planned innovations to proceed. In the first eighteen months a Library assistant, a Stenographer and an Attendant were appointed.

By June 1976 the new position of Deputy Librarian had been created, a Library Assistant position was upgraded to Librarian status, and two additional positions of Library Clerk were approved. The staff now numbered fifteen, eight of which were professional Librarians.

In the following year an additional professional Librarian was added to augment the Research and Reference Service which had been set up the previous year, and a new position of Technical Systems Supervisor was created to co-ordinate activities in the Technical Services Section of the Library.

As these additional positions were filled, so did the range and depth of services provided to Members increase. As an example, the provision of typed resumes in response to requests for information (where this was appropriate both as regards the type of enquiry and the time available to produce it) required more resources in terms of staff time, but certainly resulted in a product which was greatly appreciated by the clientele.

It was not solely in the area of research and reference that such initiatives were taking place however. Of particular concern was the considerable backlog in cataloguing and classification of books and pamphlets.

While the quantity involved was in itself a problem, equally disturbing was the amount of time involved in processing items by traditional methods for the standard card catalogue. The need to find an effective solution to these concerns was the catalyst which was to change the whole nature of the Library's development over ensuing years. This aspect will be taken up in more detail later in the paper.

From the foregoing it can be seen that by relieving the accommodation strictures it was possible to streamline services and provide space for additional staff. Though the latter had doubled in the five years from January 1973 requiring considerable additional outlay for salaries, the need to increase expenditure on monographs and serials was of parallel importance.

In the 1971–72 financial year expenditure other than on salaries was $8,100. The following year it reached $14,000 but only because of a one-off special grant of $6,000 to bind loose newspapers which had been accumulating for twelve years. In 1973–74 this still inadequate figure was maintained, with a marginal increase to $15,300 in 1974–75.

In the light of the advances being made on the other fronts, this state of affairs, while very frustrating, was not totally unexpected. Most publicly funded organisations find the job of increasing actual expenditure quite difficult, with much competition from all other public sector bodies.

The initial report on reorganisation submitted to the Committee had proposed as a "rule of thumb" that expenditure on non-salary areas should be equivalent to twenty five percent of salaries. This had been arrived at by assessing the budgets of other libraries and estimating needs of this particular organisation, and was formulated as being applicable to normal re-current expenditure, exclusive of special grants for specific purposes, for example major capital equipment.

Given the small staff this had been more than met in past years. In 1956–57 the ratio had been greater than thirty-nine percent; in 1962–63, almost thirty percent, and in 1967–68 just under twenty-five percent. Even with an increase of over one third in the budget the following year the proportion only reached twenty-one percent.

When the time for framing the State Budget for 1975–76 arrived, separate but identical approaches were made by the Library Committee to the Treasurer, and the Librarian to the Treasury Department for adequate funding to provide more substantial information sources to Members.

This proved to be successful, and in that year, the allocation was doubled to $32,600 which, with the staff increases referred to previously, represented almost twenty-six percent of outlay on salaries. The following two financial years saw this position maintained, and the Library has remained adequately funded from that time, although in the financial year 1986–87 the ratio dropped below twenty-three percent for the first time since the "lean years."

The occupation of new premises in January 1979 had a major impact on the Library and its services. The need for larger and more efficient premises for the Library had been one of the reasons advanced for building the new Annexe, which had been talked of for many years prior to its actual commencement in 1977. Many hours had been spent with architectural consultants integrating services and areas so as to arrive at totally functional premises which would provide optimal conditions for staff and Members.

The basic audio and video recording and replay carried out in the old building, was transformed to a fully reticulated system operating throughout both buildings, capable of replaying through four channels, which could be selected from any office. Instead of two recorders, there were eight fully automated machines with remote timers, and an editing suite. 'Beta, VHS and U-Matic formats were catered for, and similar provision was made for reel to reel and cassette audio facilities. A full-time monitor was appointed to carry out these functions, as well as to oversee the live in-house video coverage of parliamentary debates.

In the Research and Reference Section, staff were grouped on the one floor, in individual open offices around the resources to which they would most frequently refer — ready reference monographs, legislation from Australian and other English speaking legislatures, official government statistical series, the card catalogue, and most important of all, the printouts and terminals belonging to the computer which had replaced it.

It is perhaps appropriate at this stage to outline the inception and development of computer based information retrieval systems in the Queensland Parliamentary Library, for they have revolutionised the working of the organisation and the services provided to members.

To comment on the impact of computers on libraries in 1988 is perhaps passe, but when the first system was introduced in October 1976, it was somewhat of a pioneering venture, certainly as regards Australian parliamentary libraries.

Reference has already been made to the large backlog of material requiring cataloguing in 1973 and dissatisfaction with existing processing methods. Amidst all the changes being implemented in the first two years of the new regime, there was always the niggling thought that there must be a better way to deal with the problem. Several possible options were considered, and discarded, before a system designed by the Deputy Librarian was found to have most of the desirable attributes of an effective information retrieval system, (including the possibility of later automation) with a minimal number of disadvantages.

Analysis of the problems of processing, with the objective of detailed coverage and instant treatment on arrival, led to examination of the role of the user of the end product, and the conclusion that the existing system was characterised by a great deal of time consuming detail, such as production of duplicate cards, alphabetising, and filing of cards in a catalogue becoming increasingly cumbersome to use; geared more to the general user in a public library than a trained reference specialist in a small special library.

To overcome the disadvantages of some of these costly and time

consuming routines associated with standard cataloguing procedures, the new system offered expansion of the range and variety of information coded, while permitting any competent librarian, familiar with the basic principles of cataloguing and classification, to participate in the information storing process.

During the first six months of operation the manual system worked to such effect that throughput was doubled and, as planned, much of the time consuming clerical work associated with traditional cataloguing was dispensed with, so it seemed appropriate to investigate the possibility of using electronic data processing to further improve the efficacy and flexibility of the system.

Initial investigations soon showed that little was known of on line information retrieval systems for libraries, and certainly nothing involving an outlay within the very limited budget contemplated. The timing of the venture was however fortuitous, in that it coincided with the release of a new line of mini computers, developed and marketed by the industry within the preceding six to twelve months.

Having established the existence of a suitable vehicle, an approach was made to the Library Committee for permission and approval to initiate the project. Their enthusiastic and unanimous endorsement of the venture was most encouraging, however it became apparent that no extra funding could be expected in the coming financial year for the purpose.

The Committee did however intimate, that they would be prepared to allow the scheme to continue, if it could be achieved within the proposed budget already submitted for the coming year, without cutting back areas directly affecting services to members.

A way in which this could be achieved was submitted for, and received, approval, leaving the way clear to negotiate a firm proposal with the prospective supplier.

In the absence of affordable suitable software which could run on the prospective equipment, specifications were drawn up by the Deputy Librarian to permit the writing of the basic programs by a consultant. This was completed successfully, and on 1st October 1976 the AIRS system commenced operations. The entire cost for the programming and nine months hire of the IBM minicomputer on which to run it was $13,000.

Over the following four years the system lived up to all expectations, providing an efficient and flexible information retrieval system providing extremely specific responses, and greatly reducing traditional clerical work. Little by little the system was added to or enhanced to become the mainstay of library operations. In general terms it allowed the emphasis to be placed on recruitment of research and reference staff, because fewer personnel were required to run technical services, and the simplicity and efficiency of the system meant that it could be utilised without professional library qualifications.

More specifically, the Serial Check In and Accessions Module (completed in 1979) and the Loans and Orders Module (1981), provided control over this sector of operations which would not have been possible using manual methods without doubling the staff numbers.

The AIRS system won the 1977 IBM Queensland Award for design application on the IBM System/32 and subsequently the Australiawide nomination for entry in the IBM Chicago Conference. In following years five Australian organisations chose AIRS for their library operations.

Despite the success of the software, it became evident with the passage of time that a number of changes were desirable, partly because of changing technology, and also because of limitations imposed upon the original programs through lack of funds. With regard to the former, the software was dependent on the System/34 which was rapidly becoming obsolete, and was unable to adequately store and process the over 200,000 citations. Any change of machine would of necessity require a re-write, which should also try to achieve portability.

Other important factors which indicated that complete revision of AIRS (or provision of a commercially available alternative) was essential were: — the desirability of variable length, as opposed to existing fixed, fields; the necessity of being able to process information held in full text; and the requirement of network capabilities for the proposed linking of Australian parliamentary libraries in a computer network.

Prior to assessing what was available on the market, the Librarian and Deputy Librarian undertook discussions with the Clerk of the Parliament and Mr Speaker, to establish the general objectives and terms of reference. It was agreed that the system required should be sufficiently flexible to cater for future parliamentary text management needs (including full text of Hansard and Bills) and provide for network options and associated security requirements. Portability was an objective, and it was deemed desirable if programming took place for the system to satisfy not only parliamentary needs but be sufficiently flexible to compete on the open market, to enable the government to recover financial outlays if possible. It was also agreed that if commercially available systems were not able to fulfill the needs of the library, any software which might be developed should be made freely available to all government departments having appropriate hardware.

An examination of existing packages on the market revealed that no one system provided what was required. In particular, the capability of providing well integrated suitable multi thesauri, and the lack of hospitality to cater for the AIRS Cluster Block made existing packages unsuitable. A further problem was that the available systems on the market at that time offered only basic Link logic options.

An independent expert opinion was sought to confirm the advisability of upgrading and improvising the AIRS system, and this supported the notion that the re-writing of the programs to offer variable length fields and direct search entry options could attract more widespread use. Following approval by the Library Committee, a proposal to re-write the system and market the enhanced version was forwarded by the Clerk to relevant government authorities, including the Premier's Department, the Solicitor-General's Department and the State Government Computer Centre. Support was received from all.

The initial objective formed two stages. The first was to obtain a detailed Systems' design for a 'Full Text' Information Retrieval Module, which would be flexible enough to accommodate future additional modules, including Library housekeeping routines. The second, was to proceed, after Systems' design completion, with a sophisticated stand-alone authority module, which would be suitable as a first step towards realization of a new system. Funding allowed for one programmer only.

The Information Retrieval Module design was completed in the second half of 1982, and work commenced towards the creation of the Authority module, first on the IBM System/34 and then on the State Library's Facom. In early 1983, sufficient progress had been made to enable thesaurus construction and editing to be carried out.

Unfortunately in the 1983–84 period, Parliament rose unexpectedly prior to passage of the Appropriation Bill, and programming ceased until the end of the calendar year, when the budget was delivered.

Dialog Computing took on development of the software, with the Crown maintaining copyright, and in the 1983–84 budget specific funds were provided for the first time to enable development to proceed. This resulted in Dialog recruiting a team of four experienced programmers in April 1984, and by June they were able to demonstrate a working model of the Information Retrieval Module limited to basic search features.

At this stage, the Premier's Department, after having assessed the various Records Management packages commercially available, opted for PARL-AIRS as the most suitable for its purposes. As a consequence, a Records Management Module utilizing the logic of the Information Retrieval Module was given priority in 1984–85, and following provision of funds in the State budget, a fixed price contract was signed in October by the Honourable the Premier with Dialog Computing.

By April 1985, Dialog succeeded in producing an Information Retrieval Module providing all the search operators specified. The Records Management Module was also delivered but was subsequently enhanced by the Premier's Department on their newly purchased VAX. This necessitated conversion adjustments on the IBM developmental machine, housed in the State Government Computer Centre but operated from the library.

In August 1985 the S.G.C.C. took over project management control from Dialog Computing. At that stage work remained to be done to produce the library housekeeping module, as priority had been given in the contract signed by the Premier to the Records Management Module.

Work steadily proceeded during the 1986-87 financial year on Orders, Serial Maintenance, Subscriptions, Serial Issue Check-In, Catalogue Reports and S.D.I. Progress was made in all these areas but was often affected by the need to undertake detailed conversion work between the S.G.C.C.'s IBM mainframe, operated from the library and the VAX, operated at the Premier's Department.

The new Information Retrieval system became operational from July 1986, and by the end of May 1988, the system was completed apart from the word processing interface. Following evaluation of a number of expressions of interest in marketing the PARL-AIRS package, the Government signed an agreement with Dialog Computing for world-wide marketing rights. This also established the

right of all Queensland Government departments to have free use of the system if they had suitable hardware, and specified that the Parliamentary Library would hold the source code for safekeeping.

With the software nearing completion, the library was successful in August 1987, in securing for the use of the Parliament, a VAX 8350 minicomputer system, for an outlay of approximately three quarters of a million dollars. This ensured that the library now had the latest in sophisticated software and hardware on which to base its operations — quite a long way to progress in a little over eleven years, when one considers the first steps made to change to automation.

At present the staff numbers twenty-six, of which eight are full-time Research Officers. Apart from the extensive Audio-visual network previously referred to, which monitors current affairs programs for Members, there is also a microfilming unit which films many of the State's newspapers so that they can be preserved for future generations. Copies of these microfilms are also produced for the State Library.

The number of staff has remained static for more than five years because of staff ceilings imposed on all government funded areas of the public sector, and this has caused considerable strains on personnel involved in development of the PARL-AIRS system and its introduction into the work place.

Whether or not library numbers will increase over the next few years will depend on the utility of the services being offered to the Members and the use made of them. Obviously heavy demand would require an augmented staff if service is to be maintained at the same level. One obvious factor which could influence this would be the introduction of Personal Assistants for each Member — a possibility which is at present being canvassed seriously.

This brings us again to the question of "what is the appropriate staffing level for a parliamentary library?." In Australia the ratio of staff to Members fluctuates considerably as can be seen in the following table:-

NUMBER OF MEMBERS COMPARED TO LIBRARY STAFF

PARLIAMENT	MEMBERS	STAFF	RATIO
Commonwealth	224	191	1.2:1
New South Wales	144	30	4.8:1
Victoria	132	19	7.0:1
Queensland	89	26	3.4:1
Western Australia	91	6	15.2:1
South Australia	69	12	5.8:1
Tasmania	53	4	13.1:1
Northern Territory	25	No Library	N/A

As previously stated, the answer appears to be "whatever is considered appropriate by each parliament bearing in mind the cost/benefit."

The Queensland Parliamentary Library's expansion from 1972 has resulted in Members receiving a service equal in many respects to that being offered in many National Parliaments. The services provided have been gradually developed by a great deal of hard work and persistence, but they can not be maintained let alone upgraded or expanded unless they continue to fulfill the needs of the clientele. Relevance, as well as excellence, must continue to be the most important concepts for parliamentary librarian to bear in mind irrespective of the size of the establishment over which they preside.

008-UN-1-E

GUIDELINES FOR THE SECURITY OF LOAN EXHIBITIONS

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ABSTRACT

The 'Varlamoff' recommendations regarding loans of library documents to exhibitions as submitted to IFLA in 1985 can be extended to cover large exhibitions assembled from its own holdings by a single library for display abroad in several locations. Such exhibitions are timeconsuming over a long period and require careful planning at every stage. Their justification is not financial but the lending library derives other benefits from the publicity and interest which they arouse. A programme of related events should be arranged around them to increase the appeal. The number and variety of staff required to handle the exhibition should be carefully assessed well in advance. Firm arrangements should be agreed in good time with airline carriers to ensure that movement is exactly as planned. Long-distance overland transportation will require suitable secure overnight stops to be negotiated. The benefits of co-operation with art-galleries in promoting exhibitions drawn from library collections should be better realised.

Two strands come together in this paper: the work already done by the IFLA Working Group for Exhibitions as reported by Marie-Therese Varlamoff[1] and my own experience in negotiating an exhibition of 150 medieval and renaissance manuscripts all from my own library which toured three art galleries in North America in 1987-88.[2] I have also drawn on our experience in 1987–88 of touring an exhibition of nineteenth-century photographs in four Canadian galleries.[3]

This paper applies the recommendations promulgated already by Varlamoff to large exhibitions assembled from a single institution's holdings but exhibited by other organisations in foreign countries.

Ideally at least one member of staff from the lending library should be present in each of the host venues throughout the period of display but this may not be possible particularly when there are several venues and the individual would be absent from his or her normal work for, perhaps, an entire year. Unless a library has a full-time exhibitions officer who can be released (and few libraries are so deeply involved in such ventures for this to be practicable) the staff commitment needed to plan, prepare and support these activities should be very carefully assessed at the outset. You may well find that the intervals between closure and reopenings at the next venue are so tight that it is uneconomic for couriers to return to their home library during this period. The exhibitions fees should, of course, include a sum which will contribute towards staff release but if realistically costed the figure would probably be prohibitively large.

Why undertake touring exhibitions? The arguments in favour will not include financial reward. A sizeable profit is not to be expected. Indeed, if everything is fully costed there will probably be a shortfall. The benefits will be less tangible. Those concerned at the planning stage will see their holdings afresh when assessing them all at once as physical objects, as items of bibliographic interest and as information sources. The preparation of the catalogue will involve detailed research into the works themselves, perhaps in conjunction with related works in the host institutions. Librarians preparing exhibitions will therefore become more familiar with the works in their care.

Conservation needs will appear. Manuscripts which may be in adequate condition to be consulted locally by scholars will be subjected to abnormal wear in being transported and displayed for long periods and should be adequately conserved for these new demands. For this purpose special conservation grants will be required, either as part of the exhibition funding or by reallocation of priorities within an existing conservation budget but the exhibition plan will probably result in more funds being devoted to conservation than would normally be possible. These needs can also help to increase overall conservation awareness within the lending institution.

A touring exhibition will probably also be displayed in the home institution, either before it sets out or, preferably, on its safe return when the local population can see from press-cuttings and the publicity material of the borrowing institutions, which should be added to the exhibition, how highly other people appreciate the library's collections. Probably only the incentive of interest expressed

elsewhere will prompt a library to assemble several rare items from its shelves in one display.

Exhibition openings in foreign cities can also be the occasion to invite graduates from the lending university who have emigrated to the locality to renew connections with their alma mater. Foreign academic and business links with the home university can also be strengthened in this way. A special function such as a private view should be considered for these purposes.

The exhibition should not be a single event. The host institution should be encouraged to develop a programme of related activities — lectures, seminars, even live performances, depending upon the exhibition theme. If, for example, local calligraphers can be associated with a visiting exhibition of illuminated manuscripts, showing how modern techniques reflect the early practices and how the traditional skills are now being maintained this will strengthen the appeal of the event.

Finally, within the broader benefit of publicity for the lending institution, the exhibition, particularly through the supporting programme of activities, should stimulate research workers in the foreign city to visit the home library and perhaps participate in that university's post-graduate research programmes. This objective may lead to requests from scholars at the host venue to examine or study the exhibits in more detail. If this is to be allowed, the timing and access conditions must be agreed well in advance.

These observations all re-emphasise the Varlamoff recommendation that the iconographic or visual element should be favoured in selecting exhibition contents. Varlamoff also stresses the importance of displaying fresh materials rather than those drawn upon in previous exhibitions. This is, as she says, also advisable for reasons of preservation but a compromise can often be reached. The openings on show can be changed as the exhibition progresses and most illuminated manuscripts have several pages which would merit display but before agreeing to vary the openings the lending library must have confidence in the security arrangements being adopted. Care should also be taken in compiling the catalogue, perhaps by adding more illustrations to ease the disappointment of visitors who find that a particular page is not being displayed when they are present.

In planning a touring exhibition the host institutions will wish to know well in advance what is to be included. An interchange of visits will be necessary and perhaps the lender will need to present a slide-show at the receiving venue to aid in making selections, heightening local awareness and facilitating sponsorship. The lender will also take this opportunity to view the security and environmental arrangements in the host building to ensure that the conditions to be stipulated in the contract document can be met. In this as in every other respect the contract should be negotiated with great care and precision.

A particular problem with touring exhibitions is that the space, its shape and size, will be different in each location. Karen Hinson[4] has already drawn attention to the need for careful planning of display cases and their arrangement. For medieval and renaissance manuscripts, in particular, because they vary so much in size and depth, special cases, each with its own silica gel for local environmental control, will almost certainly be necessary. (The reconditioning of the silica gel is another factor to be taken into account.) Each book, also, will need to have a specially constructed display cradle so that it can be held open with minimum spine stress at the best angle within the display case. These individual measurements are very time-consuming to calculate, to achieve and to check when the cradles have been manufactured.

International transport arrangements are another headache. As Varlamoff recognises, couriers should accompany the items. For all but the smallest exhibitions, the exhibits should be split into at least two consignments each with its own courier. Again, echoing Varlamoff, I would argue strongly for the employment of a forwarding agent registered with the customs office, despite the expense involved. But even forwarding agents and couriers can be frustrated by airline carriers. Usually, in large consignments, only the most valuable items can be couriered in person within the aircraft as hand luggage; the others, in properly constructed, environmentally-controlled packing cases, will be carried in the aircraft hold. Current security precautions at airports strictly control the loading of baggage and may, with certain carriers at certain airports, preclude the presence of the courier on the tarmac to oversee the loading in person. The courier should require to be assured in person by the carrier's representative before take-off that the entire consignment has been loaded. Experience shows that even this arrangement can be unreliable.

On one occasion known to me, the consignment was not loaded despite assurances but came on a later flight, separate from the courier, who discovered its absence only on arrival at his destination. The result could have been more disastrous than in fact it was, in this particular instance, but it shows that, at the very least, how necessary it is to retain utmost flexibility in a courier's travel arrangements despite the resulting high travel costs. It would seem that only by negotiating carriage within the diplomatic bag of the lending library's national government can absolute certainty be guaranteed that the consignment is, indeed, on board but its adoption as diplomatic baggage may not be at all easy to achieve.

Transport on land over long distances, moving from venue to venue, also brings problems. The overnight stops should be carefully planned allowing for changing weather conditions and traffic densities. Institutions as suitable intermediate stopping points should be identified well in advance, ensuring that they are willing to receive and house the consignments, perhaps outside normal opening hours, in secure accommodation of adequate size.

The number and mix of staff required at each exhibition venue to unpack and inspect the consignments, make condition reports and prepare the exhibition for display should also be realistically assessed, as should the time scale for this work. Stabilization time is required after transportation before the packing material is opened. When the exhibition ends, the dismounting, condition reporting, and packing are again required before the next move is begun. Adequate time and identification of the appropriate staff should also be determined at the planning stage. The necessary expertise requires librarians, conservators and removers to be available and these may need to be drawn from more than one institution. Expertiese, in fact, develops as the tour progresses and it is wise to involve staff from all of the participating institutions, under the guidance of the lending library, to ensure both understanding of what is involved and continuity in its achievement. This, of course, adds further to the costs.

Both exhibitions which have given me the background experience upon which this paper is based were organised in collaboration with art galleries rather than libraries. If the exhibition contents are chosen primarily to be visually appealing, there are many benefits in selecting art galleries as venues. Exhibition attendance figures are likely to be much higher since, traditionally art galleries attract more visitors. Libraries in the mind of the general public are places for serious study rather than cultural recreation. Libraries also have little space to unpack, assemble and repack displays. The better galleries have large background areas designed for the preparation of exhibitions so that the items can be arranged in their cases under high security to be moved by elevator to the appropriate gallery floor when ready for display. Art galleries also often have a variety of rooms from which to choose so that the exhibition can be shown to best advantage. Galleries, too, will have expert designers on their permanent or contract staff whose 'professional eye' can give each exhibition a particular character appropriate to it in its surroundings and, in poster and programme design, create an overall image for the occasion.

Libraries and art galleries have rarely cooperated in this way and galleries still need to learn that the display of books and manuscripts makes its own demands, different from those of photographs, sculpture, prints or paintings. Lighting concentration needs are different. The concentration on island cases rather than expanses of wall is another such difference. The problem of how the walls are to be used also needs consideration.

This paper, despite its title, does not set out specific guidelines. Formal guidelines would first need general consultation and debate before adoption. In almost every respect, I endorse the Varlamoff recommendations. In respect of large exhibitions drawn from a single library for touring internationally I would add other recommendations for consideration:

i) the possibility of having an officer from the lending library in attendance throughout the tour as it is seen and progresses from venue to venue.
ii) a programme of related events around the exhibition, with some, if appropriate, as an integral part of it.
iii) arrangements to open different pages for display at different stages of the exhibition's life.
iv) arrangements, if any, for scholars visiting the exhibition to have access to items in it for closer examination or study.
v) adequate time for the design and manufacture of display cases and book cradles to fit the items selected for display.
vi) confirmed arrangements with airline carriers to ensure consignments travel as planned.
vii) negotiation of suitable secure overnight stops in transit over land.
viii) assessment of numbers and mix of staff to handle the various stages of the exhibition plan.
ix) cooperation with art galleries in promoting exhibitions of visually appealing library materials.

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AUSTRALIAN ACADEMIC LIBRARIES APPROACH THE MILLENNIUM: THE RECORD AND THE PROSPECT

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ABSTRACT

The paper reviews the origins of Australia's academic libraries, and the accelerated rate of development since 1950. Particular attention is given to the period 1980 to date, and is supported with graphs of collection activity. Some major library building projects are identified, and the characteristics of reference services, reader education programmes, automation, external services, and professional staff matters, are discussed.

The invitation to prepare this paper indicated that there would be an expectation on the part of visitors from overseas of a statement on the condition of Australian academic libraries at this time. I must therefore beg the forbearance of my Australian colleagues for rehearsing yet again the numerous problems that have been besetting our activities in recent years. Indeed looking at the present situation may serve only to make them wonder what they are supposed to be celebrating in this bicentenary year of white settlement.

Origins

Of course no Australian library, let alone academic library, is anywhere near 200 years old. The University of Sydney, our senior university, was not founded until 1851, followed quickly by the University of Melbourne in 1853. Universities were subsequently established in Adelaide (1874), Tasmania (1890), Queensland (1909) and Western Australia (1912). However the development of "what could in any sense be described as a library service" (BRYAN 1977, p.6) took many years. By 1933, more than eighty years after the establishment of the first University library in Australia, the total holdings for this group had reached less than 530,000 volumes (BRYAN 1977, p.27). This unimpressive performance clearly reflects upon the attitudes of university administrators, exemplified perhaps by the University of Melbourne which in 1871 "annually spent more on its grounds than on its library" (BLAINEY 1957, p.37), and later when the library had "for years housed books on ledges and window sills and unopened crates through lack of shelving, began to solve this problem by purchasing only eighty-five books in the years 1893–4," (BLAINEY 1957, pp. 111–112).

Little real improvement in the condition or performance of academic libraries would be achieved until after the second World War. The continuing depressing situation in the University of Melbourne (LODEWYCKS 1982) was repeated elsewhere. Alexander (1963, p.367) comments that in the University of Western Australia "Throughout Miss Wood's tenure of office (1927–1958), the library lacked the support necessary to enable it to provide the services proper to an academic community. . . ".

After 1945 Australian attitudes to higher education underwent a major revolution, no doubt as a direct result of the lessening of the feeling and reality of isolation, the developing economic and political association with North America, and the recognition of Australia's geographical reality as the neighbour of South East Asia. New universities, and later, from 1967, Colleges of Advanced Education, were established with some regularity to meet an expanding and changing educational need. In the new universities at least the necessity of providing modern and generous library buildings and collections was generally recognised, so that while LODEWYCKS (1982, pp.339–40) at the University of Melbourne in 1972 could still "see no prospect apart from continued submission to what in essence was an annual confidence trick, which charged the librarianship with all the statutory responsibilities of operating library services . . . with means at least twenty per cent below the relative equivalent available to the librarianship of all other Australian universities," Sir Robert Blackwood (1968, p.208) could justifiably conclude his chapter on the development of Monash University libraries with the statement "the University is proud of its library facilities."

In the forty three years between 1945 and 1988, thirteen new universities have been established, and since 1967 the alternative system of Colleges of Advanced Education has been developed. This system included the development of large Institutes of Technology in each major city, along with a range of specialised institutions in agricultural and health science, regional colleges in country centres, and finally the incorporation of former teacher training colleges and their transformation into generalist institutions. Although none of the colleges, including the Institutes of Technology, have matched the universities in the scale of their library resources, the larger ones are a significant factor in the national collection (see Allen & Brockman, 1981).

Collections

A truly remarkable period of collection development in the university libraries occurred between 1960 and 1980, as documented by Bryan (1982). While, as Bryan points out, the University of Sydney Library has played a disproportionately large part in the overall development of library resources, the general result has been the emergence of significant academic libraries in all the capital cities, with a number of smaller, but nonetheless commendable, collections in the regional centres of Newcastle, Armidale and Wollongong in NSW, and Townsville in Queensland.

After 1975 the funding of Higher Education suffered from the change in the political attitude of the Commonwealth Government, and academic libraries consequently found their budgets growing more slowly if not actually declining, year by year. The consequences of the post 1975 decline in support for academic libraries were assessed, for the Colleges, by Allen & Brockman (1983) against the standards that had been set. It was observed then that "few, if any, college libraries can, on the 1982 evidence, be regarded as adequate . . .".

The pattern of inadequate budgets has now continued for more than a decade, and has been compounded by a number of other negative influences. The continuing escalation of book and serial costs has concerned Australian Librarians as much as the rest of the profession, but our situation is frequently worsened by the fluctuations in exchange rates, which have been severe and mostly disadvantageous since 1982, dependent as we are on materials published and sold primarily in the U.S.A., U.K. and Europe. The annual budget exercise often seems to need the services of a seer with crystal ball. Increasingly there have been reviews and cancellations of subscriptions, curtailments of monograph ordering, and widespread lamentations.

Nevertheless collections are still growing, and the research resources of our major libraries have probably not suffered as severely as has sometimes been implied. Figures 1–3 update the analysis of Australian academic and research library holdings by Allen & Brockman (1983), and show that collection growth has only dropped off slightly since 1980, and then more in the State than the academic libraries. Figures 4–17, derived from the annual academic library statistics, update Bryan (1982). Although monograph accessions showed a significant decline from 1978 to 1984, the picture seems to have restabilised (Figure 5). In terms of total holdings (Figure 4) growth continues and the graph of books per potential reader has levelled out, but is at the highest level since data became available. In the matter of serial holdings, where cancellations have certainly been numerous and widespread, a recent check of the holdings of key chemical journals, as defined by the Chemical Society, has revealed a quite healthy situation. Australian universities hold one hundred percent of the eighty eight key titles, with even the least satisfactory situation, in Hobart, still yielding virtually eighty per cent of the titles (Ellis, 1988).

Where there may well be more reason for concern is in the library provision for undergraduates. The pattern of courses in Australian higher education often directs students to limited ranges of titles at specific times in the year, so that heavy pressures on limited resources are a feature of academic library life. Most academic libraries therefore operate undergraduate collections, or reserve systems, and have traditionally purchased multiple copies of key titles. It is often these resources that have suffered the major impact of acquisitions cut backs. This problem has been further exaggerated on some campuses by the failure of Library building activity to keep pace with growth in student numbers. Students

unable to borrow books placed under reserve control may also find it difficult to find seats in the Library.

Australian academic librarians have, over the past thirty years at least, made considerable efforts to collect statistics concerning their libraries' operations. An account of the development, and a consolidated and updated version, of the available data to 1983 has been published by Alice Leong (1986), while the annual compilations continue to appear as a supplement to Australian Academic and Research Libraries. This is the source of the evidence for the quantitative development of academic library collections, but it reveals nothing about their subject aspects, or their quality.

In a country of Australia's dimensions, and especially with the relative isolation of all our cities from each other and from the rest of the world, together with the social and educational requirements that all the major disciplines shall be available for study in each capital city if not actually in every university, it is to be expected that there will be a high level of repetition among the collections of academic libraries. There have however been few attempts to measure the extent of the duplication, or alternatively the impact on the bibliographic richness of the national collection. Gilbert and Immonen (1984) assessed the level of overlap between the collections of the major libraries in Western Australia, finding significantly high levels of duplication of between 40 and 70%. Since that study Rochester (1987) has looked at the Australian Bibliographic Network as a source of data for the assessment of collection overlap, and concludes that it has excellent potential. However ABN does not, at present, contain more than a fraction of the total national library holdings. The databases of such networks as CLANN and CAVAL offer other opportunities for exploring the bibliographic richness or poverty of our collections. Such efforts are becoming more attractive against the background of declining acquisition levels, as without detailed studies it will be difficult to make rational cooperative decisions to offset the loss of coverage in local collections.

There is also a paucity of hard information about even the broad picture of subject strengths and weaknesses. A recent CAUL decision to implement a RLG type conspectus exercise is obviously an attempt to tackle this area of ignorance. But if one feels with Henige (1987) about conspectus, that effort may not be overly rewarding. Those who can recall the valiant Tauber survey of 1961, and the virtually unuseable report (Tauber 1963) that eventuated, may be sceptical of the possibility of any broad appreciation of collections producing anything of practical value. The alternative approach, of limited subject and/or regional studies has been attempted for a few areas, such as North American Studies (Breen et al. 1985), German Language Resources in NSW and Melbourne (Fletcher, 1972–5), and Slavic resources (Sieglebaum, 1982).

It is therefore hardly possible to assert that Australian academic libraries have excellent collections, or to argue the contrary, that they are seriously inadequate. If we look for secondary evidence of the quality of libraries it might seem reasonable to hypothesise that we should expect that readers unable to find what they need in their local collections, will go elsewhere or seek inter-library loans. Despite the emergence of reciprocal borrowing access to libraries, for students as well as academic staff, between increasing numbers of academic libraries, the facts of geography, local as well as national, must limit the usefulness of this facility. What then of the Inter Library loan network?

ILL has been the perennial topic of debate among Australian librarians for at least a decade, with the leaders in complaints coming from the university sector. The national ILL traffic study undertaken in 1986 (Exon 1987) has exploded a number of myths, and has proved conclusively that the greatest traffic is within the academic libraries sector, that the big lenders are also the major borrowers, and that there is a strong regional self-sufficiency in every part of Australia. Moreover the system appears to be effective (close to 90% of requests being satisfied) and reasonably efficient (7 days turn-around being usual). Many of these findings were not expected, and neither was the very low proportion (1.5%) of requests that were directed overseas. This would seem to suggest that Australian collections, and specifically the academic library collections, are largely able to meet the demands placed upon them by researchers and scholars. The other relevant, and unexpected finding, confirmed by a more detailed study of ILL in Western Australia (Exon, 198?), is that by far the greatest proportion of the demand is in the areas of applied science (especially medicine), the sciences, and the social sciences, in that order. The humanities and the arts scarcely rank as an inter-library loan issue, and there may be a powerful message in this evidence for the future planning of collection development.

Audio-visual resources

Cornelius (1987) has reviewed the largely indifferent development of audio-visual collections in Australian academic libraries. Although these are somewhat more evident in the colleges than in the universities, the predictions of the sixties and early seventies have not been borne out. While Cornelius is no doubt correct in placing some blame on inadequate funding and the problems librarians have faced in trying to maintain the acquisition levels of printed materials, the basic cause of the retarded development of audio visual resources and services has probably been the monumental lack of interest in these formats on the part of academic teachers. Would it indeed be regarded as responsible for librarians to commit large budgets to the development of AV facilities in competition with the demands for traditional library resources? Concerns about the need for, and relevance of, non-print resources will no doubt re-emerge in the context of debates about the place of electronic publications, optical discs, computer software, and interactive systems etc. in the academic library. If educational technology and academic research demand these facilities, will institutions provide the funds to their libraries to acquire and service them, or will the demand be met within individual teaching departments, or in computer centres, separate media services, etc.?

Library Buildings

While the collections must remain the first concern of the academic librarian, it is the accommodation that may make most impression on the visitor. Given the genesis and history of Australian academic libraries it is hardly surprising that almost without exception they occupy relatively new buildings. But as with library collections and higher education generally, the Commonwealth Government, as virtually the sole provider of funds, has lost its enthusiasm for major new academic library buildings in recent years (see Dunstan, 1980; Fielding, 1982).

However a number of projects to extend or remodel libraries have been achieved or recently approved. The University of Adelaide has extensively remodelled parts of the Barr Smith Library to increase its capacity and make its management somewhat easier, while retaining the original reading room, possibly the most beautiful piece of library architecture in the country. Of the modern libraries, probably Fisher Library in the University of Sydney, and the Reid Library at the University of WA are the most successful aesthetically, and indeed both won architectural awards for their designers. At the other end of the aesthetic scale may be my own library at Curtin University, the external appearance of which gave rise to a, possibly apocryphal, story at the time of its building. It was rumoured that the architects, the State Public Works Department, were at the same time involved in two other major projects and that somehow the plans got mixed. In consequence there are now, somewhere in Western Australia, a hospital that looks as though it ought to be a library, a prison that has all the features of a hospital, and, can you guess, Curtin University Library the facade of which some think would better suit a prison! For all that the T.L. Robertson Library also managed to get an award — for its facilities for disabled readers (Hillman, 1982).

As a result of the limitations on funds for new buildings, many academic libraries are facing extreme pressures on accommodation. This is particularly so in the newer, rapidly growing institutions with centralised library services. Student to seat ratios of 10:1 or worse are not uncommon, although the Commonwealth Tertiary Education Commission has always adopted a "standard" of 5:1. Pressure on book stacks has also become a reality, despite the problems of acquisition budgets, and weeding and relegation to store are increasingly common responses. The development of purpose built storage libraries is not well advanced in Australia yet, but the Commonwealth Tertiary Education Commission has supported a theoretical study (Stayner & Richardson, 1983), and in South Australia the University of Adelaide and Flinders University have entered a cooperative arrangement and have built a storage library to house 375,000 volumes.

Although the 1980's have not therefore seen the excitement of the library building rampage of the 1960's and early 1970's, some important projects have nevertheless been completed. In 1980/81 the Riverina-Murray Institute of Higher Education, at Wagga Wagga, and the Bendigo College, completed major new library buildings (Dunstan, 1983), and in 1983 the third stage of the Dixon Library at the University of New England was added. In that same year the University of Sydney built its Darlington Repository with a design capacity of 500,000 volumes. About that time (1982/83) joint use libraries involving academic library participation started to appear in Western Australia, one in Kalgoorlie serving the WA School of Mines (a branch of Curtin University) and the Kalgoorlie TAFE College, and another in the North West at Karratha, being a

joint Public and TAFE library, but also servicing a number of first year tertiary students (Dunstan, 1984).

The Australian Defence Force Academy acquired a new library to hold 150,000 volumes in 1984, and the University of Queensland completed the Herston Medical Library the same year. In 1985 the University of Adelaide commenced its major remodelling and extension programme to the Barr Smith Library, the New South Wales Institute of Technology (now University of Technology, Sydney), completed its Markets Campus Library, and the Darwin Institute of Technology Library was occupied. Stage III of the Borchardt Library at La Trobe University was also in progress of building, and was completed in early 1986 (Dunstan, 1986).

1987 has seen the occupation of Stage IIB of the Auchmuty Library of the University of Newcastle, and the completion of new libraries for the WA College of Advanced Education on both its Churchlands and Bunbury Campuses, and at the Phillip Institute of Technology's Bundoora Campus. Perhaps the major building event of 1988 is the start on the Stage II of the T.L. Robertson Library at Curtin University, intended among other things, to be a $12 million facelift!

Reader Services

Compared with their colleagues in cataloguing, serials, acquisitions, or medical branch libraries, Australian reader services Librarians are poorly organised and have an almost non-existent corporate image in Australian academic librarianship. Why this should be so is not clear, and it certainly does not mean that they are not industrious, dedicated or effective. However there is little in the literature to prove their performance, and it is possible that they are in danger of being taken for granted. One noteworthy exception to this low level visibility is the response by the Library at the Hawkesbury Agricultural College to the innovative *problem centred educational programme* that has been introduced there (Redgrove, 1986).

It must be admitted that the opportunities for true scholarly librarians are limited in Australian academic libraries. Much of the work on the enquiry desk involves relatively mundane assistance to undergraduates, with individual or similar queries recurring many times and one year after another. Moreover the impact of on-line searching has been to reduce, or even eliminate, the manual search that used to be the pinnacle skill of the reference librarian. Work at the terminal may be a solitary, out-of-sight activity, and be contributing to a group introspection phenomena.

Again, curiously, there have been few attempts to undertake studies of academic library users' needs (Managing . . . 1986, p. 75) and the few that have been attempted have been undertaken by management, technical services librarians or library studies students rather than by reference librarians. Perhaps the latter know how difficult such studies are, or perhaps they agree with a senior colleague who expressed the view, at a national meeting where user studies was a topic, that "he didn't need to undertake any studies because he knew what users needed"!

Nevertheless there is some flicker of concern among Australian academic librarians that we ought to be examining our services and performance. Two relatively recent studies focussed on use of the catalogue. Radford (1983) and Radford, Rossendell & Sexton (1986), at Sydney University, was concerned with the traditional problem of user success in finding resources. He confirmed American and British experience that nearly 40% of attempts to locate resources end in failure.

In another catalogue use study, aimed primarily at assessing the adequacy of the data being included in the entry, Hayward (1985) came up with the somewhat disturbing finding that, in a sample of 600 catalogue users, there was a slight negative correlation between success and prior experience of a reader education programme!

Mays (1986) undertook one of the few actual studies of Australian academic library users that have been reported. His 1981 data for Deakin University students indicates a low level of borrowing by at least one third of the students. However he reports significant differences in levels of use according to subject being studied and age of the student, and some measure of correlation with academic performance. More specific studies have been triggered by the Library problems perceived as the outcome of major new educational initiatives, the most recent of these arising from the inclusion of nursing education in the College sector over the years 1984–87, (Managing . . . 1986, p.98–99). Hastings (1988) has followed up a preliminary study of nursing students at Curtin University with an extensive survey, including also students from the W.A. College of Advanced Education, and she reports a twenty percent failure rate among nursing students seeking materials from their parent institution's library.

Another development that is beginning to cause concern in some libraries is the increasing number of overseas students, largely from South East Asia, as a result of the government decision to allow institutions to charge cost recovery fees to overseas students. While there has not been time to carry out formal studies or to prove trends, there are strong indications that these students are making disproportionately heavy demands on both collections and reference services, while sufficient funds to enable libraries to respond adequately are not generally forthcoming.

Reader Education

Formal reader education programmes are now well established in almost all Australian academic libraries. However while the first attempt to introduce reader education, as it is now understood, occurred at Macquarie University in the 1960's, the most intensive and extensive development occurred in the College Libraries through the 1970's. A feature of this development has been the involvement with large numbers of students in the attempt to achieve close to 100 percent coverage, and with considerable success. Another common characteristic of programmes is the tailoring of content to match the course subject interests of the students. At least in those institutions where these large scale programmes have been established for some years there has been a significant coming together of academic and library staff, to the point where an initiative for an extended or specialised reader education programme is likely to come from the academic side.

A considerable variety of materials, techniques and equipment, is being used in reader education programmes, and it is not possible to summarise or generalise the Australian approach. Fjallbrant & Stevenson (1984) provides an outsiders perception of the Australian achievement, and since her survey, development and innovation have continued.

Cooperation and Networks

Academic institutions and chief librarians are alike notoriously jealous of their independence. Add to that the geographical and political structure of Australia, and it is hardly surprising that schemes for national coordination of library activities encounter numerous difficulties. Even at the local or state level the love of independence has often prevented or delayed the establishment of cooperative agreements. However a number of notable exceptions have been achieved, and the present climate is certainly more favourable to joint ventures than in earlier years.

The two major regional cooperative schemes that involve academic, but not only academic, libraries are CAVAL (Cooperative Action of Victorian Academic Libraries) based in Melbourne, and CLANN (Cooperating Libraries Action Network) operating in Sydney and NSW. While there are considerable differences in structure, nature of membership, and functions of these two networks, both have a joint catalogue data base accessible on line as the focal facility.

CAVAL comprises the four Victorian University libraries, fourteen college libraries and the State Library, and commenced operations in 1978. Apart from operating an on-line regional catalogue currently being accessed by 8 libraries, CAVAL provides staff training, undertakes consultancies, and coordinates cooperative purchasing of equipment, expensive publications etc. CLANN, which was also incorporated in 1978, now includes 57 libraries, academic, public, TAFE and special, and operates a public on-line catalogue and circulation system. The network has also introduced reciprocal borrowing, since 1982, and free ILL between members.

A more widespread form of cooperation is the granting of free access and reciprocal borrowing privileges to the staff and students of a group of neighbouring institutions. Perhaps the earliest of these to be formalised was in Perth, between the University of WA, Murdoch University, and the WAIT (now Curtin University), which, despite some early problems that led the University of WA to withdraw temporarily, has operated satisfactorily since 1975, and has been extended to include the WA College of Advanced Education. (Library . . . 1976, p.6; & 1977, p.7–8; Hale, 1983, Allen & Exon, 1983). A similar service of mutual support is frequently extended to external students, and there has been some effort to get a nationally agreed policy on this issue, although so far with only partial success.

Automation

Computerised bibliographic databases, and later on-line searching capability, arrived in Australia during the 1970's largely through the efforts of the National Library, which developed Medline in association with the Commonwealth Department of Health, and conducted limited experiments to provide SDI services and also a limited on-line access to ERIC. The success of the latter experiment

led Monash University Library to seek means to establish a continuing on-line facility, and this lead to the establishment of AUSINET as a cooperative operation between a number of academic libraries, the National Library of Australia (as major supplier of databases) and ACI Computer Services Limited (as operator), in 1977 (Richardson, 1984). The establishment of this Australian network made it obvious that it was also possible to access overseas databases, and the WA Institute of Technology (now Curtin University) led the academic libraries in accessing DIALOG and then other data base providers, from 1978. Growth in activity was however relatively slow (Wood, 1981), and even today the "development of computer assisted search services in Australian university libraries has in general been conservative" (Henty & Wood, 1986). The commercial takeover of AUSINET by ACI in 1980 has resulted in the demise of a number of small, Australian created, data bases, and the dropping of other overseas bases that were not profitable, and a shift in emphasis by the company to more business oriented operations. Access to overseas data bases is therefore at the core of on-line activity, and communications charges are a major element in library costs. Policies on charging clients vary between libraries from no charge to almost full cost recovery, for internal users. External users are generally charged full costs or greater (Henty, 1987). But in any case the level of costs has probably been the major limiting factor to growth. The most active libraries in on-line searching are the Universities of Melbourne and Queensland, with 582 and 485 connect hours respectively in 1986. Only three other libraries reported more than 200 connect hours and another four between 150 and 199 hours (Henty, 1987).

In matters of housekeeping however, the application of computers to library processes has, after some uncertain starts, gone from strength to strength. For a variety of reasons some of the first libraries to embark on automation, such as the Universities of Sydney, W.A. and Monash University were not very successful in their early endeavours. A number of college libraries were indeed much more successful in the early 1970's, both in getting systems working and in building complete databases, admittedly for collections of more modest size then the universities just mentioned. Nevertheless RMIT and Swinburne IT in Melbourne, and WAIT in Perth can claim honourable mention as pioneers.

The introduction of ABN as a cataloguing support service in 1981 provided a powerful stimulus to academic libraries not already committed to a computerised catalogue, and held out hope for manageable retrospective conversion to the libraries with major catalogue files to computerise. Along with ABN the other major stimulus has been the marketing of turn-key systems. One way or another Australian academic libraries have made solid progress in automation, and while they may not be at the cutting edge of new developments, the extent of penetration of computerised systems is perhaps more impressive here than even in the USA. The automation experience of Australian academic libraries is perhaps well exemplified by Steele (1985), who describes the background and consequences at ANU of a decision to change computer systems, and in particular to move to a commercial integrated package (URICA), while the experience of Curtin University (Allen, 1987) illustrates the alternative of in-house systems development and the reasons that lead an internal university committee to conclude that the possible modest benefits to be gained from a commercial system would be outweighed by the considerable cost, disruption and practical problems of data conversion.

External Services

The external mode of, or distance, education has been developed extensively in Australia, in part as a recognition of the needs and rights of access to higher education of a widely scattered population across a continent, and in part, and more recently, because institutions have seen external studies as less costly to manage and as a means to expand enrolments, and therefore income. However, to quote Crocker (1984), "Library support services in particular fail to receive due attention . . .". Several studies or surveys of the library needs of, or the services to, external students have been conducted, notably Store (1979), Brockman & Klobas (1983) and Winter & Cameron (1983).

External students form a significant, even major, part of the student body in some institutions. Thus for the libraries of such institutions as Mitchell College, at Bathurst, NSW, Riverina College, at Wagga Wagga, the University of New England or Deakin University, services to external studies assume great importance, and considerable effort is made to develop or harness effective telecommunications links and provide quick delivery facilities. For example Mitchell College has introduced a free telephone (008) number to allow any of their 3500 plus external students to make loan requests from anywhere in Australia, and has also made its CLANN based OPAC accessible by phone or Austpac through the College's local area network.

However concern for external services is not restricted to those libraries whose institutions have a majority of external students. The University of Queensland, one of the largest in Australia, has a long established tradition of external studies, and the Library maintains a separate collection, the Thatcher Library, dedicated to servicing them. This library provides both postal and personal service, and also maintains a free telephone access number.

Professional Staff

Australia has a long and honoured history in labour relations and the development of industrial legislation. That that development is on-going, combined with the Federal structure of our governmental system and the differing degrees of organisation evident in different industries, ensures that there is considerable variation in employment conditions not only between different industries or professions, but to some extent even within a group of essentially similar workers.

Professional librarians in Australia are in fact far from a cohesive group in industrial terms. Even among academic librarians there are quite significant distinctions, between states, between institutions, and between levels in a single institution.

It was not until the early 1960's that the last of the universities in existence at the time granted its librarian the status, and salary of a professor. In 1971 in a discussion of the confusion of position terminology, which has not greatly lessened, Scrivener (1971) was able to report that the three Victorian Universities had adopted a pattern of broad equivalence with academic staff for professional positions, and that the University of WA had adopted much the same scheme. However ten years later Hazell (1981) describes a wide variety of classifications and salaries for apparently similar positions in different university libraries; and if he had included the college libraries the variety would have been much greater and have revealed a preponderance of non-academic styles for librarians, including Chief Librarians, although a few college Chief Librarians have before or since 1981 achieved professorial rank. Indeed for reasons that seem obscure the Australian Vice Chancellors Committee turned against academic status for librarians, and a number of universities have in recent years introduced new classification schemes for professional librarians, some including chief librarians, based on public service salary scales and conditions. The present author has argued strongly against this trend (Allen, 1984), but to no avail even in his own institution. Burrows (1986) has described the debate that took place at the University of WA, which reveals two strongly opposed views of the nature of academic library work. The division of opinion is as evident among the librarians themselves as it is among the academic 'teaching' staff; university administrators appear to see little or no difference between their own work and functions and that of librarians. However while a number of battles have been lost, the war may still be won as librarians begin to experience the less flexible work conditions that the loss of academic equivalence is already bringing.

The Prospect

It is an obvious platitude to state that the future of academic libraries will be set in a political context, national and institutional. Nevertheless it is an inescapable conclusion that much of what may be achievable will be strongly influenced, if not controlled by, political decisions quite outside the realm of library management. Many academic libraries have been subjected to formal reviews in recent years (Steele, 1987), and the indications are clear that greater accountability will be expected in future.

The impact of fee paying students has been mentioned above, and this is likely to become more significant in the next few years as institutions try to enhance their incomes from this source, and as Governments try to extend the image and influence of Australia in neighbouring regions. It is predictable that any library that gets a truly fair share of the resultant income will indeed be a lucky library.

Allied with the fees innovations is the emergence of private institutions. With one or two minor exceptions in the area of theological and teacher training, tertiary education in Australia has traditionally been state owned and funded. In the past two years however at least two private tertiary institutions have been established, with government approval. The International Business College, in Perth, has negotiated an agreement with Curtin University of Technology, and is already teaching the first year of the University's degree course in Business. The management of the College is entirely private, its operations are supported by fees, and it is required to provide a full range of services, including a library, in return for which Curtin University will monitor the academic programme and

admit the students to its examinations. The other, more widely publicised development, is the Bond University in Queensland, which is now in the process of building and recruiting staff. Its President and Vice-chancellor, Dr D W Watts, bridging the Anglo-American terminological gulf, has expressed some controversial attitudes to the nature and role of academic libraries. Riding the hi-tech bandwagon he is foregoing the immediate pleasure of a University Librarian and has appointed a Director of Academic Services. An anonymous appreciation of this development was recently published in AARL (A new age . . ., 1987). Australian academic librarians may have to decide fairly soon how they will respond to demands, for interlibrary loans for example, from private institutions.

This break in the tradition of Australian higher education has been endorsed by the Government's green paper on the future of the system (Higher . . ., 1987). While the soul searching of debate on the real intentions of the government has been fast and furious, the general agreed analysis is that the government wants more output for less funds, more central control, greater uniformity, greater relevance, of courses to employment, of research to industry, and so on. Nowhere in the green paper is the word library mentioned, but many if not all of the proposals or implied policies will have some impact on libraries. Clearly the chances of getting improved funding, overall, are slim. Despite the always ready protestation that libraries are central and essential to academic endeavours, it is hard to believe that institutional managements will in fact protect library resources if or when further funding reductions occur.

In the context of improving efficiency the argument of the economies of scale has been revived, with the implication that the small institutions might merge or join a larger institution in order to achieve viability. In the early 1980's the then Liberal Government imposed a series of amalgamations upon smaller Colleges of Advanced Education, either joining several colleges together, (as in Brisbane, Melbourne and Adelaide), or merging a college with a nearby university (as in Townsville). Unquestionably these actions created major problems of reorganisation for the library services (see Cook 1987). No thorough assessment of the profit or loss arising from these events has been made, and it is doubtful if an accurate balance sheet could be drawn up. However if another round of amalgamations is to be initiated it is certain that there will be considerable disruption, if not to basic library services at least through the distraction of librarians from other, perhaps more fundamental problems that they are facing.

Undoubtedly new and developing technologies will play an increasing role in the management and delivery of library services, although not to the point of extinction of traditional procedures. Funds apart, Australian libraries will continue to be somewhat disadvantaged by their remoteness from the centres of innovation and supply. However there is evidence that the younger members of the profession are attuned to the emerging technologies and given half a chance they will keep our libraries abreast of the rest of the world, at least.

While there is certainly no cause for academic librarians to be complacent about the future, neither is there any real reason for despair. The prophecies of ten years since were much gloomier than the reality of today. But the wise librarians preparing for 2000 AD will be honing their management information systems, studying in detail what their students and academic users really do need and how they use library resources, and building bridges between libraries to enhance mutual support and effect real resource sharing.

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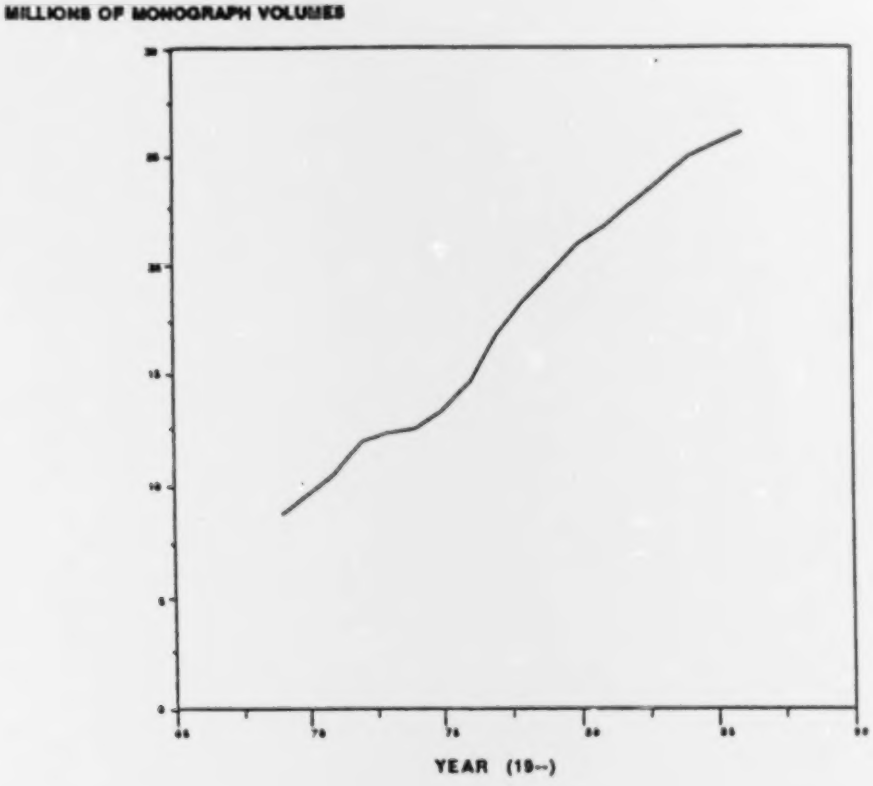

Figure 1: Aggregate holdings of Australian academic and research libraries, 1969 to 1986.

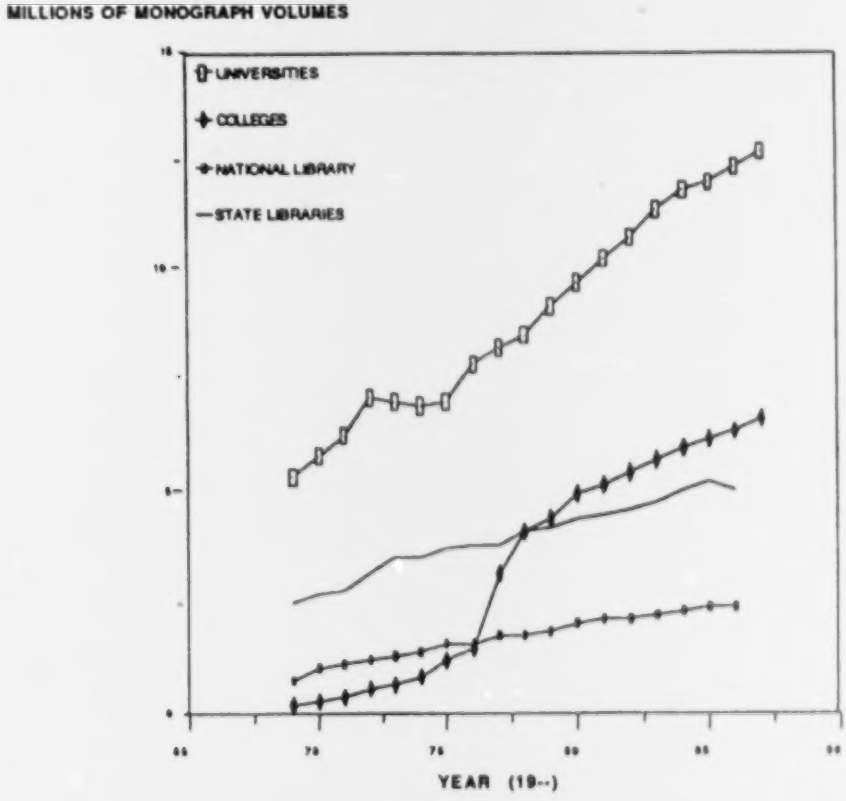

Figure 2: Holdings of Australian academic and research libraries by group, 1969 to 1987.

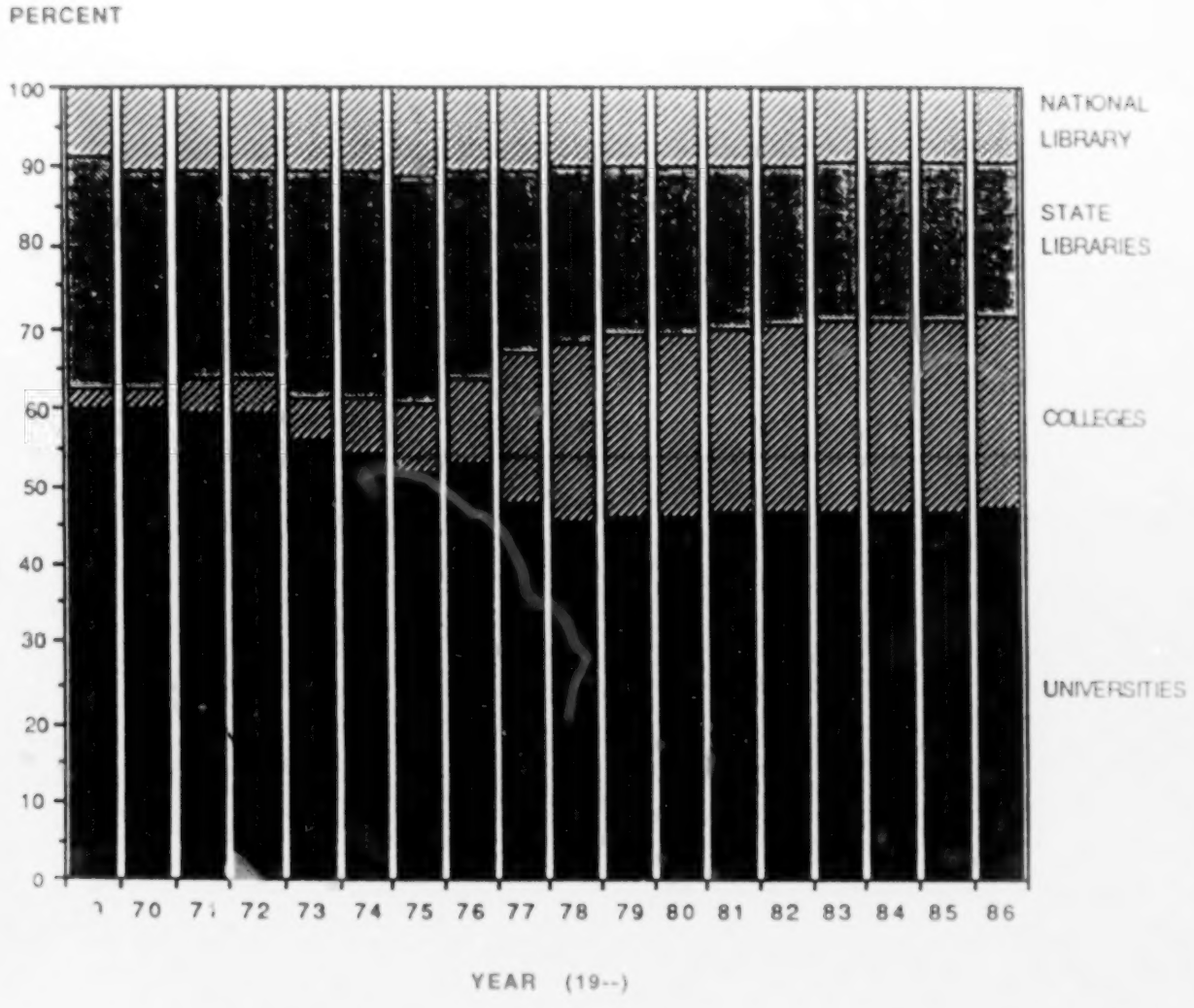

Figure 3: Resources of major library groups as a percentage of total Australian holdings, 1969 to 1986.

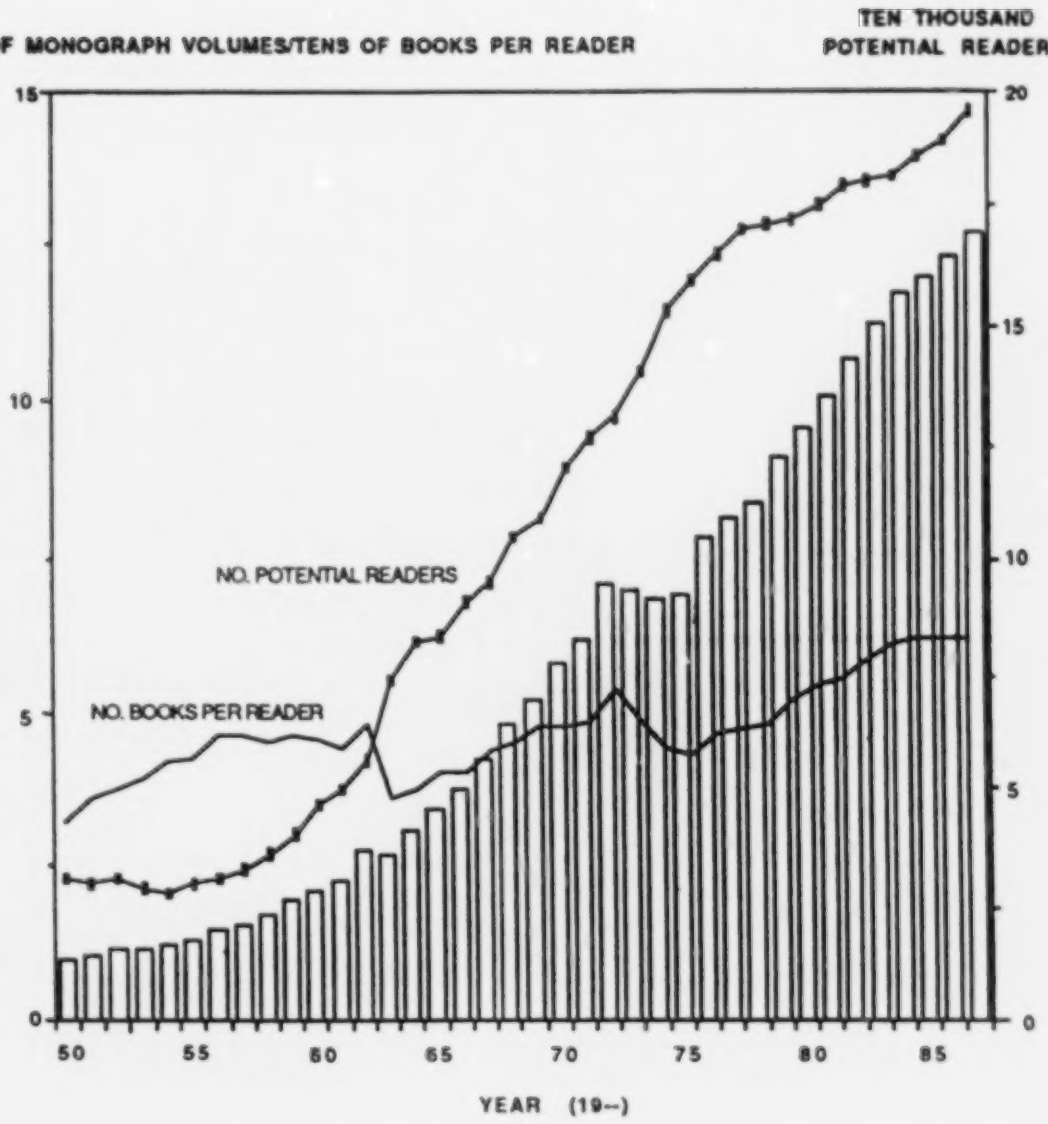

Figure 4: Holdings of all Australian university libraries, 1950 to 1987.

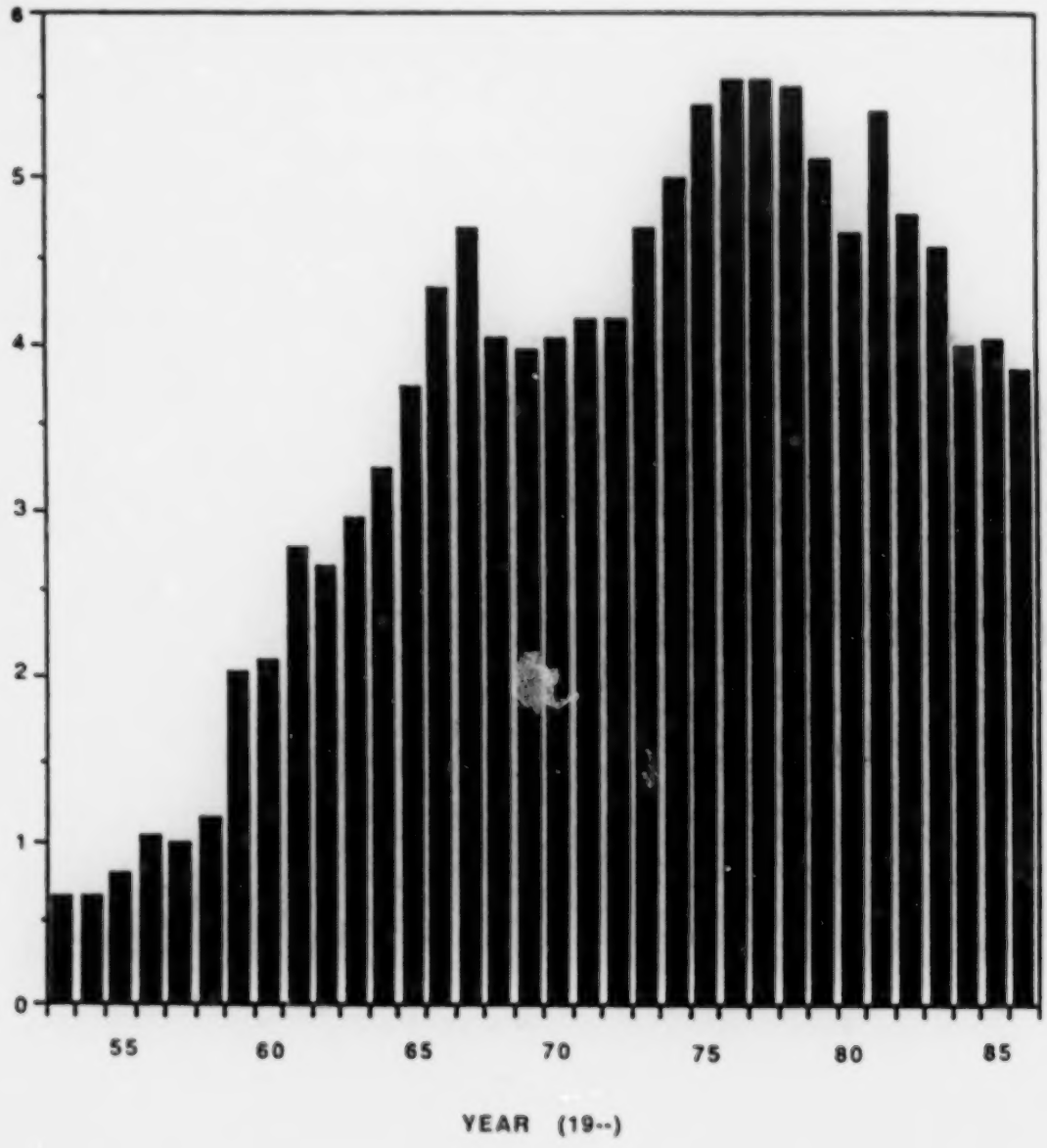

Figure 5: Accessions to all Australian university libraries, 1953 to 1986.

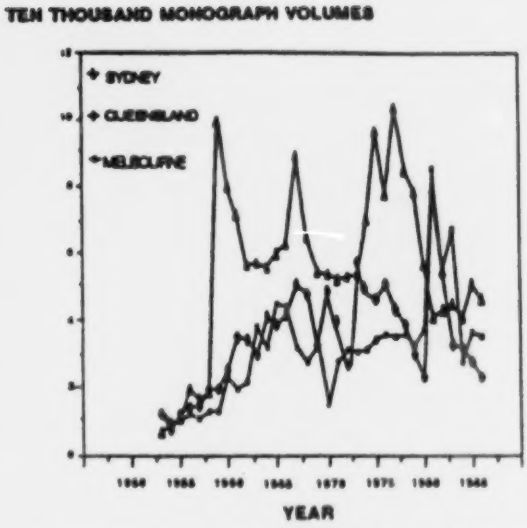

Figure 6: Sydney, Queensland and Melbourne: accessions 1953 to 1986.

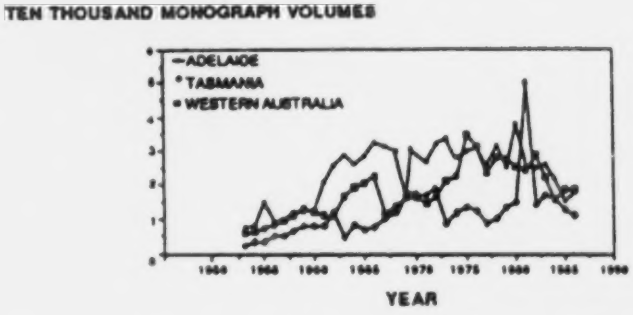

Figure 7: Adelaide, Western Australia and Tasmania: accessions, 1953 to 1986.

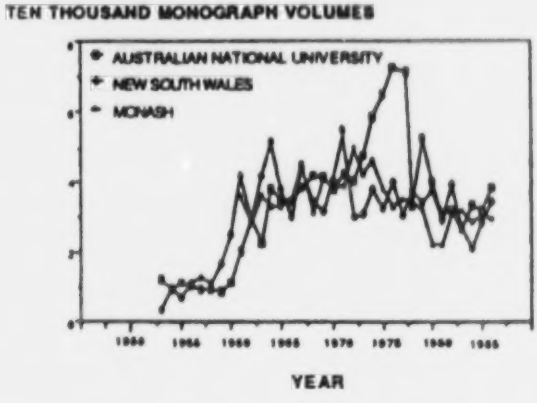

Figure 8: ANU, New South Wales and Monash: accessions, 1953 to 1986.

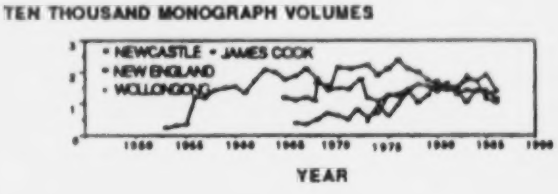

Figure 9: New England, Newcastle, James Cook and Wollongong: accessions, 1953 to 1986.

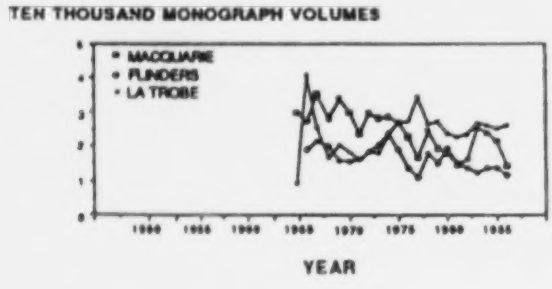

Figure 10: Macquarie, Flinders and La Trobe: accessions, 1953 to 1986.

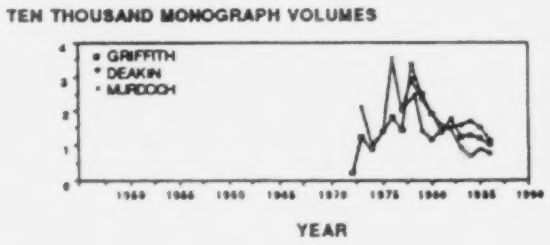

Figure 11: Griffith, Murdoch and Deakin: accessions, 1953 to 1986.

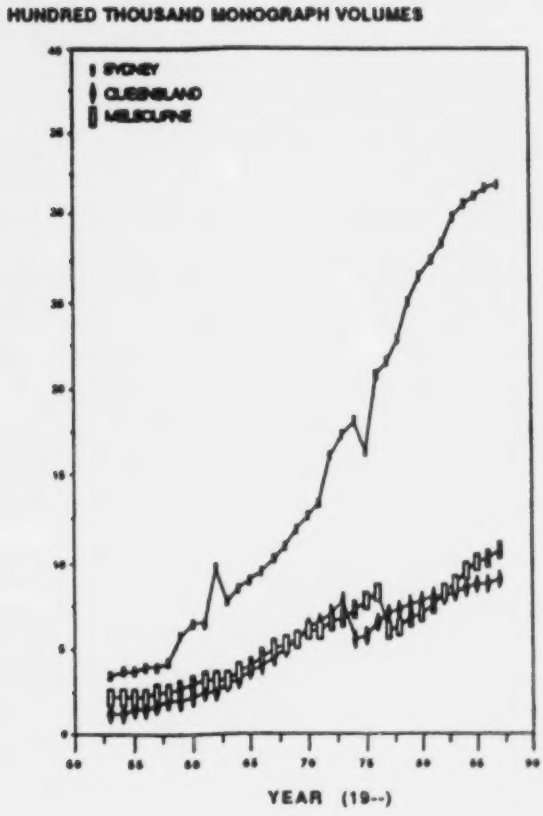

Figure 12: Sydney, Queensland and Melbourne: holdings, 1953 to 1987.

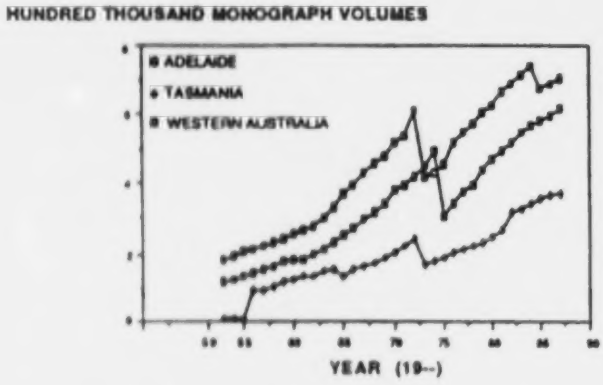

Figure 13: Adelaide, Western Australia and Tasmania: holdings, 1953 to 1987.

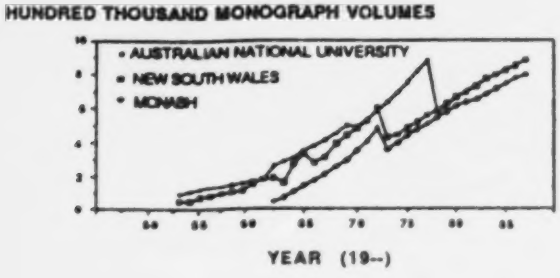

Figure 14: ANU, New South Wales and Monash: holdings, 1953 to 1987.

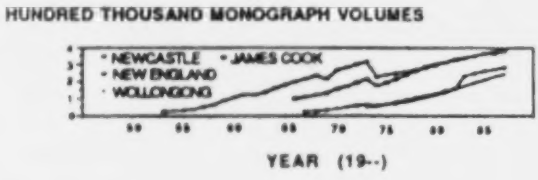

Figure 15: New England, Newcastle, James Cook and Wollongong: holdings, 1953 to 1987

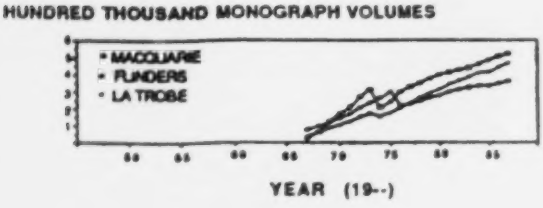

Figure 16: Macquarie, Flinders and La Trobe: holdings, 1953 to 1987.

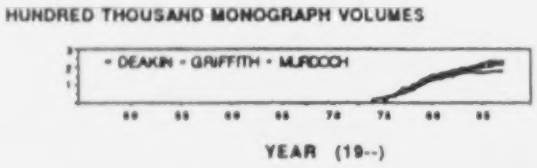

Figure 17: Griffith, Murdoch and Deakin: holdings, 1953 to 1987.

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LIBRARY EFFECTIVENESS — THE NEED FOR MEASUREMENT

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ABSTRACT

This paper discusses the need for libraries to determine their effectiveness in order to obtain the required financial support for their services. It argues that funding authorities have to be convinced of the relevance of the goals of university libraries. These goals should also reflect the needs of the different user groups. Concrete objectives to realise these goals have to be formulated and the library's performance in respect of the objectives should be determined.

The problem of libraries, like all service organizations, to formulate concrete goals and objective performance measures is discussed against the background of the general literature on organizational effectiveness — particularly because goals tend to be vague, complex and multi-faceted.

A project by the University of South Africa library to formulate goals and objectives and to apply continuous evaluative measurement as a management approach is described.

Although the system is far from perfect, it has offered many advantages, focusing attention on the major activities of the library and indicating reasons for under-performance — which can then be addressed.

INTRODUCTION

The measurement of the performance of libraries (as well as information services) in order to evaluate whether they are operating effectively and efficiently is being studied and discussed more and more intensely over the last decade or so. The objective performance measures that have been advocated for libraries have not, however, been applied to any wide scale. The ACRL task force on performance measures for academic libraries could in the course of their work since 1982 not identify one example of an academic library which was using objective measures of performance as a management component (25), whilst McClure (15) in a more recent study finds that: "There is little data either being provided or actually used for the computation of public service performance measures." Similarly Ralli (21) has stated that: "It has not impinged in any dramatic way on the consciousness of many librarians here in Australia" and it is very likely true for most other countries in the world.

This paper will consider:

— why a library, like any other organization, should evaluate its effectiveness
— what is meant by the concept organizational effectiveness
— what the current views on library effectiveness and performance measures are
— how the University of South Africa (UNISA) library approached continuous measurement of its effectiveness as a management tool.

THE NEED FOR EFFECTIVENESS

It is unlikely that any person or organization should not wish to be successful in whatever is undertaken. If we see an organization as people working together effectively and efficiently towards the attainment of their group goals the success of the organization relates to the degree of goal attainment.

Service organizations are established to fulfil particular needs that are so obvious and that are felt so strongly that somebody (for example the government, an institution or a group of people) is prepared to finance such an organization. Funding will be forthcoming as long as the need is regarded as valid and the service is effectively fulfilling its purpose or goal and the necessary funds are available. "Effective management in the not-for-profit sector of society is a growing concern. Peoples' daily lives are increasingly dependent on not-for-profit enterprises and an ever-increasing share of the national resources flows into them" (18). The stronger competition for available funds over the last decade or so is probably the most important reason for the increasing interest in effectiveness and performance measures in service organizations.

To put it very simply: it has been accepted for a long time that a library performs an essential function and, looking at it in retrospect, money was made available rather freely for this purpose. It is true of course that libraries (including the Harvards and the Yales) were even then complaining about lack of funds to expand their collections and services. This poses the question: when is funding really adequate — though this shall not be addressed here.

With time more and more essential public services have been established, mostly to improve our quality of life. Nash (17, p.157) states that the "not-for-profit organization is rapidly becoming the most numerous and pervasive type of institution in the United States . . . conservatively at least 30 percent of all employed people work for institutions of this kind."

Unfortunately, the available public funds appear to have reached their limits — in fact most governments are cutting back, or would like to cut back on the income taxes which are the source for these funds. In short, money for public service organizations is limited. It is clear that only those organizations, or parts of organizations, that are regarded as important by the authorities will receive their share of the available funds.

The onus is thus clearly on the organizations, like libraries, competing for those funds to convince the authorities responsible for their funding, that:

— their services are essential
— their services are made available effectively and efficiently.
— An obvious way to do this would be to formulate clear overall service goals expressing the need of users for these services, and in a way that is being regarded as valid by the authorities. The effectiveness of the services should then be measured objectively. Due to an increasing emphasis upon accountability it is essential that evaluation be an ongoing part of an activity whenever possible (1, p.101–103).
— The fact that this is not being done extensively, indicates that it is not an easy task. The problem is that those needs are varied, multifaceted and often vaguely formulated. As a result the goals

of these organizations also tend to be vague and their effectiveness hard to measure. How does one know whether one's library service is good or bad, or at least better than the previous year. Clearly our much used input measures are not serving that purpose. As it is expected that funding will remain a problem in years to come, serious attention should be given to evaluation of performance which has been used successfully in the private sector for a considerable time. Other reasons why effectiveness of libraries should be evaluated include the following:

— It can act as an internal control device or feedback on the performance of ongoing programmes, as Kaske (13, p.1) in an early and surprisingly little quoted dissertation on the subject states: "The central question of 'How well is the library doing?' must be answered by the management of a library in order to plan and control the library's operations."
— It can provide an indication of problem areas and aspects of the service that need further attention.
— Service organizations are increasingly making use of management techniques developed in the business sector, including the principles of management by objectives.
— Some government authorities are requiring organizations to measure their effectiveness. The United States for example has a federal law dating back to 1970 (13, p.3), whilst the National Library of Canada had produced a handbook on performance measurement in federal libraries (6, p.4).

ORGANIZATIONAL EFFECTIVENESS

The literature on organizational effectiveness is confusing in various respects. Some authors focus on the criteria to be used to indicate or measure the effectiveness of libraries. Others try to establish the characteristics of effective organizations. In some instances both approaches are used.

This paper is concerned with the criteria or measures by which effectiveness can be determined. The aim is primarily to measure the overall effectiveness on an organizational basis. Acknowledging that it is unlikely that one measure of effectiveness for the total organization can be found, the alternative is to concentrate on a few of the major goals or programmes. This paper is not concerned with the evaluation of the performance of individuals, or what is commonly known as performance appraisal.

Management literature concentrates almost entirely on business organizations and is mainly goal orientated and usually defines effectiveness as the degree of goal achievement observed in the organization. Although some authors disagree, it is generally accepted that business has one major economic goal namely profit, which can be expressed (for example) as earnings, dividend yield or capital growth. It is equally true that most organizations have more than just this one goal. Growth and market share are mentioned, but these are also economic goals which contribute or are subservient to the major profit goal. Lately, and particularly in the larger corporations, goals concerning employee and social welfare are included (22, p.78). These should, however, be considered as secondary goals as they can only be properly dealt with if the organization is effective in its primary goal to make a profit. It is clear that the profit goal provides a very clear indicator in the planning and evaluation of the effectiveness of business organizations. To use this, or any other unitary goal can also misdirect management and encourage undesirable practices. The position of service organizations in the not-for-profit sector is very different. Newman and Wallender (18, p.26) warn that the organizations included under this heading are so heterogeneous and their differences are "so great that their common negative characteristics of not seeking a profit becomes minor." The fact that service organizations do not have one primary goal, like the profit motive which helps shape strategies or programmes, is regarded as a very serious problem. "The absence of such a clear goal can get enterprises into difficulties." It is particularly worrying that without the aid of one clear major goal, the mechanics to provide direction are seen to lie in one charismatic leader and in the mistique of the service mission of the organization. The multiple goals, which are vague and hard to measure, make objective control and evaluation very difficult if not impossible.

The theoretical literature on organizational effectiveness is considered to be in a "state of confusion" (5, p.261) and organizational effectiveness itself an "illusive concept" (20, p.165). No concrete definition of organizational effectiveness has as yet emerged (4, p.1). "Goal based definitions are still regarded a rule" by Keeley (14, p.1) and success is thus measured against organizational intentions. This provides a basis for a more objective framework of what an organization is actually trying to do — and how well it succeeds in doing it. He (14) has serious doubts about the objectivity of the goals, as they are so difficult to specify objectively and participants and observers may easily disagree on their interpretation. Zammuto (24, p.147) is also concerned that the "low variety goal-based evaluations can place blinders on evaluators and administrators."

An an alternative Keeley (14, p.4) supports Zammuto's participants or constituents related approach: "Judgements of effectiveness are inevitably contingent upon which individuals or groups (constituencies) supply the criteria for evaluation" and states that the aims of participants are varied and will often be in conflict with one another (p.13). Zammuto (24, p.67) states that different constituencies will judge organizational effectiveness differently. By way of an example it is mentioned that the authorities, the doctors, the support staff or the patients of a health care centre will have very different views on the effectiveness of the health care centre. To ensure that an organization is meeting the demands of its constituencies it has, therefore, to know what criteria they are using to judge performance. It is, however, important that constituencies which are not prominent but may have an important impact on the organization or vice versa, should also be considered (24, p.151).

Various other approaches to effectiveness exist. Cameron (4, p.5) refers to the system resource approach of evaluation, where organizations are regarded as effective insofar as they acquire the needed resources for system management. Another approach focuses on internal processes and operations of the organization. In this case effective organizations are those with an absence of internal strain and whose members are highly integrated into the system. Each of these approaches provides a useful guideline for systematically assessing the effectiveness of various types of organizations.

LIBRARY EFFECTIVENESS AND PERFORMANCE MEASURES

There appears to be no agreement on the library effectiveness concept (8, p.107). After reviewing 500 articles, books and abstracts Evans and others reported on a great number of diverse measures that were employed in an attempt to evaluate library performance (9, p.102–103). This diversity of opinion is a reflection of the situation in organizational effectiveness. The different meanings attached to the concept of performance, are analysed by Hannabuss (11). The 33 different measures which were identified and categorised under 6 basic criteria by Evans, indicate that none of the evaluation methods considers total library performance. Virtually all the evaluations were done on a once only basis. The reason given for the lack of attention to overall library effectiveness is that "those interested in the matter don't know how to make such evaluations" (8, p.105), or the "lack of available techniques for measuring and evaluating the quality of a library's service or function" (9, p.102). This appears to be true, judging from the fact that the few studies which have used statistical techniques or mathematical models, have seldom been replicated by others. Hannabuss (10, p.250–251) enumerates the advantages and limitations of the different quantitative techniques. A number of these techniques, like modelling and sampling have been more fully described by Morse (16).

Evaluation is seldom undertaken, due to the mistaken beliefs that measurement is either impossible or unnecessary. Librarians appear to expect acceptance of their services on faith alone. "Sincerity of motivation becomes confused with effectiveness of results. Input (such as dollars spent or numbers of staff involved) are substituted for output as indicators of library success" (8, p.106).

But are our libraries providing a good service? A number of evaluations that have been done on essential aspects of our service clearly indicate that the quality leaves a lot to be desired. A growing number of studies on the availability of library materials shows that users find only between 40% and 60% of the books they require from the library, while the performance in respect of reference questions appears to be equally poor. "The general reaction is an acknowledgement that problems may exist in some libraries, 'but not in mine'" (7). There should be general agreement with the conclusion that a problem exists and that a 55% level of performance is totally unacceptable. A first step would be to measure how we are doing ourselves and to determine the problem areas. After that we can start planning for improvement.

Although public and governmental libraries have been involved with performance measures for a longer time (15, p.330 and 6, p.6), a number of important publications on the evaluation of academic libraries have appeared recently, including some published by the Association of Research Libraries (12 & 6). Although this should be welcomed as it continuously adds to our knowledge of a complex problem, it is also true that little attention is given to the application of continuous evaluation and performance measurement in prac-

tice, as was indicated earlier. There is also little understanding about public service performance measures (how they are established, their purpose and their relationship to larger administrative activities such as planning, goal setting, and evaluation (15, p.326). More significantly, only a few librarians interviewed by McClure were familiar with Kantor's "Objective Performance Measures for Academic and Research Libraries." The few librarians that were familiar with it, were of the opinion that it was too complicated and time consuming to be used and they doubted if the measures would be used for library decision making.

It should be clear that we do not have the final answer on library effectiveness. As in organizational effectiveness goal achievement is receiving most attention. Until recently the goals were to a large extent input orientated. Nationally promulgated standards or on some quantitative standard decided upon by an individual library often serve as criteria for effectiveness. More recently attention has been given to quantitative output measures, like availability rates.

Many of these efforts concentrate on matters of efficiency and productivity. This is possibly due to the hard financial times, and the wish to stretch available funds as far as possible (2, p.3–5).

McClure concludes that, as library goals are vague, imprecise, complex and manyfold, it is essential that priorities, or goals and objectives, have to be set and that measureable objectives for each goal should be formulated. Although the goal approach predominates in librarianship, more has been written about its disadvantages than about its value. The goal approach is summarized as follows: "Positively, goals serve to motivate those working in the library, enhancing the library's significance and meaning as an institution. Negatively, attempts to evaluate library effectiveness through the measurement of the degree of goal attainment is rarely productive because goal statements do not shed light on the relationship between means (Library Processes) and ends (the contribution of the library to its users). The user focus (i.e. the impact of the library on the life of the users) is absent. It is evident that library goals are 'ideals' and that measuring their achievement rests on extremely imprecise measures of the impact of the library on the individual or society" (8, p.117).

Another effectiveness approach concentrates on user needs. This approach involves both use studies and user satisfaction studies. Measures of user satisfaction often overlook non-users. The development of availability measures, as indication of user satisfaction, is particularly important. If it is accepted that the major goal of any library is the provision of documented knowledge to its users, effectiveness in this area should be regarded as important.

Other approaches to effectiveness measurement like the system survival goal, where effectiveness relates to the measure of success in obtaining funds, or the personnel attitude approach which concerns the staff's view about the library's role, which has to change from a book and building to a people and information orientation and an involvement of library staff in participative management, only receive scant attention (8).

From the above, it can be concluded that effectiveness is a measure of a number of related factors. Du Mont and Du Mont have tried to integrate all these factors into what they call a systems concept. The proposed approach appears, however, both too vague and complicated for practical implementation. A management approach requires a relatively basic concentration on the most important factors which would necessarily include the major goals of the organization. These goals would have to include the needs as well as the views on effectiveness of the major participants, in other words the funding authorities, the users and the library staff. The library's goals, the objectives and the measures to evaluate them should, therefore, be acceptable and formally approved by all parties concerned. They will not be perfect measures, but they will be better than nothing. They can be refined with time. The evaluation or measurement should be done on a continuous basis. This requires that the data has to be collected in an economic, cost effective way.

THE UNISA APPROACH

The University of South Africa (UNISA) has since 1947 been one of the first universities to be entirely devoted to distance teaching. It has over the years maintained a consistent growth in student numbers, approaching 100 000 in 1988. Since South African universities are funded by way of a subsidy formula based largely on student numbers, the UNISA library has grown correspondingly. The rapid expansion has required periodic organizational restructuring of the library service.

At the end of the seventies a team of lecturers from UNISA's School of Business Leadership (SBL) agreed to assist the library in its effort to make itself more effective. The first question by the SBL consultants was, "What is the library's goal?" To emphasize its stronger service orientation the library had formally stated that it aimed to provide the best possible library service. The consultants agreed that this was admirable. Their next question — how the library would know when it was providing the best possible service — could not, however, be answered. This lead to a discussion of the need for concrete goals and measurable objectives. The consultants stressed their belief that anything worth doing, needs to be evaluated, preferably by objective measures. If that is impossible, subjective measures should be used.

Discussions on the library's overall goal and objectives were held by the library's Management Committee. The Committee of Senior Librarians was regularly consulted and agreed to the final wording of the goals and objectives before it was put to the Library Committee. With the latter's approval it was forwarded to University Senate and Council. Apart from following the goal based approach the library did, therefore, also attempt to involve its major constituents — with the notable exception of its students. Students were not omitted because they are considered unimportant. On the contrary, the library's service ideal had clearly indicated many years before — and this is highlighted in today's goals — that two distinct user groups with greatly differing needs have to be served:

— undergraduate students, with their study needs, mainly in the form of recommended literature
— lecturers, researchers and post-graduate students, with their need for research material.

The needs of a third user group, the community, which has become more prominent the last few years, may also have to be specifically addressed in the near future.

UNISA's approach was primarily management orientated and very pragmatic. The aim of the exercise was the formulation of a concrete goal which would express:

— as accurately as possible the major reasons why the library service exists and why the authorities make considerable funds available, and
- the reasonable expectations of the users of the service.

Performance measures had to be developed to determine the level of effectiveness. Only the most relevant points of this process will be mentioned here. A fuller discussion is available (23).

UNISA does not have a formal goal or mission statement, but various views on the functions, role and task of the University have been stated. These views center around the traditional activities of tertiary education and of research. It was accepted that the library service was instituted in support of, or more positively, to promote those activities. After considerable debate it was agreed that, although a variety of secondary functions exist, the major goals of the library should be seen as:

— the provision of information, bibliographical as well as otherwise
— the provision of information sources or documented knowledge (books, journals, etc).

As a relatively young and middlesized library the staff realized the library's limitations and the need for co-operation with other libraries. The library's goals as approved on 17 March 1982 and since amended, read as follows:

— To promote the study, teaching and research activities of the University through the provision of physical and bibliographic access to sources of documented knowledge and information (and)
— To co-operate with other universities in this regard in the national interest.

The next step was the identification of measurable objectives. Getting agreement amongst the staff proved even more difficult here than with the goals. Two decisions were made in the early stages:

— The provision of information is a wide and vague concept. As no acceptable measures of effectiveness for this service could be identified, it was decided to ignore this for the time being and to concentrate on the provision of the information sources or documents.
— The major thrust of the exercise was on measures of effectiveness or quality of service. Efficiency and productivity will, therefore, be specifically addressed only after the measures of effectiveness have been established.

The primary task of libraries has been the provision of information sources. Libraries make available books, journals and other documented information on a collective basis. This is done because individuals or the organizations to which they belong cannot afford to make this available to individual users. The library staff eventually agreed that a user would evaluate the library's document or information source delivery as effective to the extent that he/she is

able to obtain the required information sources. The initial objective was formulated as an ideal availability rate. This rate was decidedly unrealistic in view of the prevailing situation. As such an unrealistic objective can have a negative or demotivating influence on the library staff, the long term objective was reworded as follows:

The long term objective for effective provision of information: To optimally satisfy requests for information.

Objectives for effective document delivery:

— Regarding study and teaching, the maximum number of recommended sources of information should be available and retrievable on demand.
— Regarding the research activities, the maximum number of sources of information should be available and retrievable on demand.
— Regarding sources of information not available on demand, the maximum number of sources should be supplied within two weeks.

As a management tool, it was essential that measurement of the level of effectiveness of each of these objectives be done on a continuous basis, without too much costs or staff time.

A performance measure for document delivery developed from available data proved too imprecise, as it fully reflected the failures of postal requests, but not those of local users. A literature search to find an alternative indicated only one fully documented methodology, by the Library Management Research Unit in Britain. Unfortunately a number of significant changes had to be made before it was found acceptable for our purpose.

The adapted methodology provides for a brief questionnaire, handed to every tenth person on leaving the library for the reporting of all items required but not found. After two test runs at the end of 1984 and the beginning of 1985, the first survey was done over twelve days in June and July (23). Since 1986 the survey has been done on a monthly basis — except in January, providing a continuous and comparable evaluation of the library's document delivery effectiveness. It is accepted that it is not a perfect performance measure. It is, however, continuously refined. Kantor's methodology is similar but more sophisticated and offers interesting alternatives. The possibility to limit the number of sampling days to six without notably effecting the validity of the results, is at present being considered.

The result, so far, has demonstrated that it is possible for a university library to formulate meaningful aims and objectives and to identify performance measures which indicate the effectiveness of the library's document delivery service as a whole. Similar objectives and effectiveness measures have been determined for each of the library's four functional departments and its study collection. These objectives are directives for planning and have provided a motivating influence on the personnel. Since objectives are not all embracing, but rather pertain to key areas of the library service, there is a danger that less important aspects of the needs of particular user groups may be overlooked.

The project has lead to increased insight into the nature of the library's goals and objectives and has provided an opportunity for their continuous examination. It is now generally accepted that it is better to have an objective which is approximately correct than not to have one at all. Any doubts which may arise relating to a particular objective can always be investigated at a later stage. The major problem is to identify performance measures which do not place an excessive additional workload on the staff. In view of the vast sums of money invested in a library it is not unrealistic, however, to use a small part of it to ensure that the service meets its objectives.

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1-LIBHI-1-E

THE HISTORY OF THE NATIONAL LIBRARY OF INDONESIA: THE BIBLIOGRAPHICAL BOROBUDUR

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ABSTRACT

This paper reviews the history of the Bataviaasche Genootschap (1778) and its library as a forerunner of the newly established National Library of Indonesia (1980). It attempts to indicate the relations of the Society with the scholarly world of the late 18th and 19th centuries and the growth of the library through its vicissitudes. While this period has been thoroughly written up in Dutch sources, very little has been produced in English; and the paper brings the history forward with an account of the creation of the new National Library in the context of its post-colonial heritage and the problems facing such institutions in the developing world. The new institution is likened to the historic Buddhist shrine of Borobudur recently restored to grandeur through wide international support and a plea is extended for similar international assistance in the conversation of the holdings of the library's inheritance.

Introduction

A study of the history of the National Library of Indonesia is of interest on several counts. Its recent birth in 1980 and gestation over the past twenty years has just now (August 1988) been crowned by the opening of a grand new building, and the transfer

and amalgamation in it of substantial collections whose origins date back to the 18th century. Its recent history, therefore, charts a familiar course of endeavours in third world librarianship, and its attainments and problems to date exhibit many of the features and conditions of other national libraries in Southeast Asia and the developing world generally.

The National Library of Indonesia was created by decree of the Ministry of Education and Culture in 1980 with the integration of four existing organisations:[1]

The library of the National Museum (1778);
Two departments of the Library Development Centre:
The library of political and social history (1952);
The Department of Bibliography and Deposits (1953);
The library of the territorial office of the Department of Education and Culture of the capital city of Jakarta (1958).

The former history, however, of the National Museum, a product of the European colonial period, shows the new National Library to be a child of both the 18th century humanistic 'enlightenment' and the 19th century 'orientalism' of the colonial powers so that its longevity and survival are remarkable in their own right. The survival of so venerable an institution, in terms at least of Indonesian history, makes the old collection a veritable national treasure and a source now of both Indonesian national heritage and the history of European involvement in the region; it is both a challenge to modern Indonesian historians and a resource, as well as being a mine of information for European scholarship and Dutch national bibliography.

The new building so recently opened reflects this dual history — the administration and staff area, the display of treasures and conference centre, occupies an old Batavian school building dating from the 1860s and beautifully restored, while alongside rises a multi-storey stack and service building, representative of the best in contemporary Indonesian architecture housing the great collection from the Museum and the reading rooms. I believe that it is timely to bring the existing, primarily Dutch accounts of the origins and history of the library uptodate at an IFLA conference in neighbouring Australia where the European impact dates from only two hundred years ago.

Early History

The origins of the 'time-honoured'[2&3] library date from April 1778 when the Bataviaasch Genootschap van Kunsten en Wetenschappen (the Batavian Society of Arts and Sciences) was set up by J-C.M. Radermacher (1741–1783), with Renier de Klerk, Governor of Batavia, as its first President. The Society is generally recognised as the first European learned society to be established in Asia, its foundation preceded that of the 'Asiatick' Society of Bengal by six years. In Manila, the Spanish authorities saw to the establishment of the College de Santo Tomaso in 1611, but its library does not figure in the history books until well into the 19th century; in the India of the East India Company, Warren Hastings had established a *Medrasa* in Calcutta in the 1770s but this was more particularly for the translation of Arabic and Persian law.

It should not diminish the primacy of the Society to refer to its early decline following the deaths of Radermacher and de Klerk and its virtual recreation by Sir Stamford Raffles in 1811 when the brief British interlude in Java began. Raffles took as his model, in fact, the constitution of the Asiatic Society founded by Sir William Jones in 1784. The 'Asiatick' Society preceded the establishment of the Royal Asiatic Society (1823) and was formed in the light of the Royal Society (1665) itself. His aim was to introduce the civilisation of the East to the West which he realised could not be done without the founding of a school of study in the East co-ordinating the the efforts of all scholars. He found that the publications of the Society were accepted with avidity in Europe and this was the model Raffles took when he came to re-invigorate Radermacher's Society in Batavia.

The Bataviaasche Genootschap was established as an offshoot of the Haarlem Society of Sciences (Hollandsche Maatschapij der Wetenschappen) on the inspiration of its twenty-fifth anniversary in 1777. The historical importance of the Society is that in being the first of its kind in the East, it nevertheless set the form of such societies, the tone of their interests and the style of their meetings including the publication of transactions, the Verhandelingen (VBG),[4] which are described thoroughly along with a history of the Society by Lian The and Van der Veur,[5] the accumulation of a cabinet or museum collection and the establishment of a library. It also had corresponding members throughout Java and the Indies and in its first year it had over 180 members; it invited and received patronage and gifts from individuals if not the state too. It also proposed 'questions' for extended answer and expeditions for research purposes. The Koninklijk Instituut voor Taal-, Land- und Volkenkunde was not set up in Holland until 1851 whereas the Oriental Society of St. Petersburg dates from 1810 (in conscious emulation of the Asiatic Society of Bengal and Jones's inspiration) and the Societe asiatique in Paris from 1822. The Penang Library was set up in 1817, the National Library of Singapore dates from its forbear, the Raffles Library, in 1823; the National Library of India takes its origin from the Calcutta Public Library, 1836. The oldest library in Australia, the State Library of New South Wales, dates from 1826.

The Society that Radermacher founded was however, a precursor in a different kind to that of Sir William Jones's Society in Bengal. In the context of Indies society in Batavia, Jean Gaffin Taylor[6] intimates a more modest justification in its establishment. She suggests that this owes something to the fact that Radermacher was a Holland-born immigrant to Batavia and the Dutch East India Company, and the intention he and his supporters had was to bring out the pursuits and cultural habits of their European heritage to the largely *mestizo* community of the Dutch East Indies.

Radermacher also founded the first Freemasons' lodge in the East, La Choisie, in 1762 as a relative newcomer from Holland, and the purpose of the Lodge was to focus the ruling Dutch caste on the sort of European social pursuits that were lacking in Batavia. After two centuries in the East the Dutch East India Company (the VOC) had evolved a largely Eurasian society and while the sons of the leading families were usually sent 'home' to Holland for their education, the womenfolk were not and the men, including the 'immigrants' (Radermacher included, who married de Klerk's stepdaughter, daughter of a previous Governor) generally married 'native' wives, Dutch more in name than reality. The need to broaden the European culture of the Company's employees had been recognised earlier in the century and the 1740s saw the establishment of short-lived schools, a marine academy and a newspaper, in an attempt to leaven the largely *mestizo*, Portuguese-speaking, and Javanese-influenced ruling class. These institutions were not approved of by the VOC authorities in Amsterdam and had not survived the 1750s. Freemasonry was a new approach and the lodge introduced an avenue of social escape for the ruling (male) caste. Two other lodges followed but Radermacher's other interests also found expression when he came to found the Bataviaasche genootschap with the more laudable aim of emulating the Haarlem Society in the Indies.

The early proceedings of the Society were fruitful and a librarian was employed (F. Baron von Wurmb, a young German employee of the VOC, and a gifted scientist) as curator of the cabinet of natural history and library. When Radermacher inherited his father-in-law's house in 1780 he gave it to the Society as its first formal home. (This building became the home of the National Archive in 1892 and still serves that purpose today, albeit as the Archive's showplace and museum and not the home of its main collections). Radermacher died at sea on his return from a visit to Europe in 1783 and the Society did not long continue active after this. This was surely for lack of a driving intellectual force or any sense of continuity with the colonists' past at a time of political decline of the VOC. The development of affairs in Europe during the 1790s led in the Indies to the replacement of the VOC by the Dutch crown as the ruling authority; this was soon followed in Holland by the establishment of the Republic under Napoleonic rule in The Hague, and in the East by the governorship under French control of Daendals. The British having taken Cape Town from the Dutch in 1806 moved on the Indies in 1811 and Raffles became Lieutenant-Governor of Java under Lord Minto, Governor of the East India Company in Calcutta.

Sir Stamford Raffles, 1786–1826, (one of the noblest and most attractive figures in British colonial history, and one of the most unjustly neglected) was the second founder of the Society for Arts rescuing it from its 'torpor' following Radermacher's death. He introduced the new constitution based on Jones's plan for the Bengal Society and revitalised its proceedings and membership. His two Presidential addresses also continue Jones's practice of substantial annual addresses*; they appear in the 'Memoir' by his wife[7] as well as in the VBG (vols. 7 and 8) which he was instrumental in having published**. He introduced more scholarly, 'orientalist'*** and directed approaches for the Society and its members whose number climbed again to 80 or 90. He moved the Museum and Library of the Society into the annexe of the clubhouse known as the 'Harmonie' in 1814; It cannot be said that the Society took a firm root as a result of Raffles' nurture since a decline once more followed the end of British rule in Java (1816); and the regulations he instituted were partially overturned. But by the mid-1820s the Society had restored itself and maintained its development thereafter. It remained at the 'Harmonie'**** until 1868 when all the collections were re-housed in the Greek (Doric-styled) building overlooking the Merdeka Square, where the Museum, now the National

Museum, has remained ever since undergoing continuous development and rebuilding over the years.

During the 19th century the Society experienced several 'new directions' under new presidents. By the 1870s there were several Javanese members of the Society, notably Raden Saleh, the celebrated painter, and others of the nobility whose contributions began to appear in the VBG. Its centenary and 150th anniversary (by which it had received its royal charter) drew considerable attention. The early twentieth century saw its greatest strength and growth and world-wide reputation.

Growth of the Library was slow until 1850, what with ravages of tropical conditions, discards, losses and poor library regulations. The Society had to resist claims from institutions in the Netherlands.

Various catalogues were published over the years (as listed by Bernet Kempersin ref. 1). The first catalogue of 1846 lists 1,115 items; by 1860 there were 3,400 and by 1920 over 100,000 items together wigrowing and valuable collection of Javanese manuscripts (which remain still with the Museum and not the National Library); subsequent expansion included the incorporation of a Law College and service to its needs. By the 1920s the Library acted both as a specialist oriental library and also as a university library in the broader sense, and provided an extensive lending service throughout the Indies archipelago.

The Japanese period (1942–1945) was marked by no drastic alteration in the activities of the Society or the Museum and Library. It is reported that on attempting to commandeer the building the Japanese military authorities were so impressed by the fact that the Society numbered Japanese scholars amongst its corresponding members that they did not attempt to intervene in its affairs (or to strip it of its ironwork and other potential material). Indeed, the authorities continued to uphold the deposit so that the National Library now holds a very substantial collection of wartime official publications and a bibliography of these has been published.[9] Bernet Kempers,[1] reports that on his return to the Library after the War he found his office just as he had left it, quite untouched, but he does report losses during the war and subsequent years.

Following the period of the struggle for Independence, the Society remained in existence for a few more years as the Lembaga Kebudayan Indonesia (the Indonesian Institute of Culture) from 1950 until 1962 when the Society was disbanded and the Library was put under the Museum's jurisdiction. The VBG ceased publication; TBG become the Majalah untuk ilmu bahasa, ilmu bumi dan kebudajaan Indonesia and this ceased publication for lack of funds in 1958. The National Library now has considerable holdings of the revolutionary and Independence literature and ephemera, and including the records of the Independence 'Proklamasi' of August 17th 1945 itself.

Establishment of the National Library of Indonesia

Planning for the creation of a National Library did not figure in the early years of the Republic. While the Museum held a nominal role during the '50s and '60s, official attention and the process that led to the Ministerial decree did not begin in earnest until the 1970s. Miss Mastini Hardjoprakoso, the Director of the National Library, then an employee of the Museum returned from her studies in Holland in 1956. In 1973, following her postgraduate library studies in Hawaii and a tour of national libraries in Europe, she produced a 'scheme for a national library' which at first fell on deaf ears at the Ministry of Education and Culture though it attracted interest from the state planning office (BAPENNAS) and the other scientific and documentation services. A new Director of Culture taking office in 1978 took greater interest in the proposals and Miss Mastini's scheme came to fruition in 1980. She likes to suggest that the process can be dated from the exhibition of its extensive collection of colonial and national newspapers[10] held at the Museum in 1968. Mrs Suharto, wife of the President of Indonesia, was attracted to the exhibition and made a semi-private visit and it is her interest and private support following the 1980. Act creating the Library that has enabled the Library and its new building to come to fruition this year.

Planning for the Library included much internal and consultants' efforts and some reports are listed below.[12–15]

The basic role of the National Library is summarised as follows:

To serve the whole of the Indonesian people in providing recorded materials such as books, serials, maps, microforms etc;

To promote the country's library development by means of supplementing the services of individual libraries;

To cover all fields and all types of publications, in particular those produced in Indonesia and about Indonesia;

To provide a centralised cataloguing service;

To compile a national bibliography and a union catalogue;

To develop inter-library cooperation within the country;

To represent the country in library cooperation at the regional and international level.

In practice the National Library is primarily a humanities library while national responsibility in Science falls upon the Pusat Dokumentasi dan Informasi Ilmiah (PDII) (1965), for agriculture at the Central Library for Biological Sciences and Agriculture (the old 'Bogoriensis' of 1842) and for medicine on the University of Indonesia medical faculty library.

The National Bibliography', and the 'Index to Periodicals' (produced by PDII) are described in Gorman.[16] An Indonesian ISBN system and CIP programme have been launched. The Library also publishes a bibliography of 'Pancasila', the state orthodoxy, and bibliographies of Javanese manuscripts. It should be noted that the Library of Congress and the National Library of Australia both have regional cataloguing offices in Jakarta, and records from Holland and LC are now being passed to the National Bibliography. Currently some 3,000 items a year are recorded of a presumed 7,000 items nation-wide; it is the official and provincial materials that elude collection so far, and as elsewhere, it is the lack of an effective Deposit Act that causes the National Library concern. It is expected that a long-planned bill will become law in the near future, another of the Director's hopes before her (delayed) retirement.

The Library is now investigating the use of computer-based systems for national bibliography and an IndoMARC working group has been appointed to translate the format into bahasa Indonesia, to establish standards for AACR2, authority control for Indonesian names and subject headings. With the move to the new building, the conservation of the historic collections and the newspapers is an urgent major concern, and retrospective conversion will be a desideratum.*****

It is worth mentioning that the National Archive occupying as I have said Renier de Klerk's old home on what is now Jalan Gajah Mada, was set up in 1949. Initially this too was under the Ministry of Education and Culture. Subsequently, by Decree no. 26 of 1974, it became a 'non-departmental' institution responsible to the President through the State Secretariat. It is Miss Mastini's hope that the same independent status can be achieved by the Library before too long. This has implications for the standing of National Library staff in the civil service hierarchy and other benefits will also accrue.

Following the creation of the new National Library and pending the refurbishment of the present administration building (the King William School building of 1860), Miss Mastini and her staff occupied the old "Proklamasi" building on Jalan Imam Bonjol, which had previously been the residency of the British Ambassador, not the last of the several perhaps tenuous British connections with this Library. A British consultant in Jakarta can certainly reflect on the relative progress of the new buildings on Salemba Raya and the Euston Road!

Conclusion

It may seem invidious to invoke the history behind a modern post-UNISIST fledgling national library in a developing country seeing as we have that its origins were characteristically European and colonial, inimical both to the Eurasian culture of the first three centuries of European influence in the Indies, and irrelevant to the native Javanese traditions and society of that era as well as the succeeding period of increased Netherlands control up to Indonesian independence. The irony of history leaves the developing country with a relic of an alien heritage that yet sought to record, investigate and understand the Indies tradition itself in all its forms (social, geographic, linguistic, spiritual, archaeological, natural and cultural). It is to be hoped that in the wake of softening reactions to harsh historical and political experience, the acceptance and the celebration of the most lasting form of impact of one culture upon another (the humanistic and scientific), here its academic tradition, a museum and a great library, will re-invigorate that library just as the Republic's major cultural project of the post-Independence era has seen the restoration of the majestic ruins of Borobudur through local and international effort.

The 'Bibliographic Borobudur' as an Indonesian heritage extends beyond the National Library to the Bogoriensis and the provincial collections in such places as Ujung Pandung (Makassar). It also invokes the combined interests of the colonial powers in Southeast Asia which have made this Library a resource not just for Indonesia and the Dutch, but also for ASEAN and Australasia. As an example of a multicultural, if unconsciously-derived harmony this library is unparalleled. There has been considerable work by Dutch scholars and libraries, and assistance to the National Museum over the years, including microfilming of newspapers and other hold-

ings. But the collection is largely an unknown quantity to the world at large. Raffles concluding remarks about Japan, as it happens, in his second address of 11th September 1815, retain therefore their point even now and make a fitting close, I think:

> '[The Japanese] are a people with whom the European world might hold intercourse without compromise of character; for the Japanese themselves are wonderfully inquisitive in all points of science, and possess a mind curious and anxious to receive information, without enquiring from what quarter it comes. . . . Let us hope that now, no withering policy may blast the fair fruits of that spirit of research which has gone forth from this Hall; nor continue, under any circumstances, to shut out one-half of the world from the intelligence which the other half may possess.'

The Indonesians are now the possessors.

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India Office Library and Records;

Goldsmiths' Library University of London.

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* Sir William was a member of 'the club' where Dr Johnson held court in London (but he was not I think a mason). He also, on the occasion of his tenth Presidential address to the Asiatic Society, reflected on the difficulties of sustaining the Society in the difficult conditions of military and commercial rule in the tropics;

** He apparently took further papers away with him when he left Java but these were not published and were in fact never found again;

*** Edward Said's strictures on the 'orientalism'[8] of the imperialists, hang over us now and I don't attempt to dispute them here.

**** The Harmonie had been founded by Governor Daendals to counteract the masonic lodges which he regarded as nests of conspiracy and it survived until very recently when it was pulled down to make way for a traffic island (whereas the grand classical theatre of the 1820s has just been restored very handsomely). The Harmonie, is described along with the National Museum the National Archive building and the house, at Tanjung Timur, of Jacobus Johannes Craan, first secretary of the Society, in Heuken;[11]

***** All the factors deliberated at the recent LIBER symposium on 'The future of old libraries' apply here as much as in Europe.[17]

2-LIBHI-2-E

THE HISTORY OF NATIONAL LIBRARY PROVISION IN AUSTRALIA

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ABSTRACT

Though it has commonly been asserted and accepted that the Australian Commonwealth Parliamentary Library, virtually from its inception in 1901, was designed to develop along the lines of the Library of Congress, there is some doubt if this was a consciously or continuously pursued policy. It was not taken particularly seriously by the much older and much larger State libraries, or by the library community generally.

The establishment of the National Library of Australia as a separate entity in 1960 did not result immediately in any more positive stance but, within a decade, the Library was asserting a leadership role and an involvement in national library provision and planning that went far beyond the development of a national collection.

In accepting and ultimately supporting this change, the attitudes of other Australian libraries to the National Library have altered dramatically over the last twenty years. For its part, the Federal Government has firmed in support of a role of national cooperation for the Library.

The definitive history of the National Library of Australia has yet to appear. Recently Andrew D. Osborn has chronicled the development over the years 1901–27, of the Library's ancestor, the Commonwealth Parliamentary Library,[1] and, for some time, Peter Bis-

kup has been researching this same period and working on a fuller coverage of the Library's history.[2,3,4]

The intention of the present paper is not to attempt any kind of full historical treatment but rather to trace the development of attitudes; attitudes by the Commonwealth Government towards the National Library, attitudes by other Australian libraries and librarians towards it and attitudes by the Library itself towards the enunciation and implementation of its role and functions. This task is either forwarded or made more difficult by the fact that the author has participated in the second and third of those processes over the last forty years, first as Librarian, in succession, of two university libraries and later as the Director-General of the National Library. What follows then, is inevitably somewhat subjective, but may not be without value as comment by a contemporary observer.

Some background knowledge of the history of Australia as a nation is an essential prerequisite to any attempt to understand the origin and development of its national library. European civilization in the antipodes is a relatively recent phenomenon, as the current Australian Bicentennial Celebrations emphasize, though those same celebrations have themselves drawn attention to the much longer established aboriginal culture that was displaced and very nearly destroyed by white settlement. The European appearance in Australia took the form of successive settlements, predominantly penal in character, beginning in 1788 on the eastern seaboard and gradually encompassing the continent. By the end of the nineteenth century these settlements comprised six well-established British colonies, each enjoying responsible government within the British Empire.

Thus Federation when it occurred, in 1901, was the voluntary association of a group of sovereign states. Under the Australian constitution these states ceded no more than a carefully circumscribed number of powers to the new national government. Of interest to the topic of this paper, the powers ceded to the Commonwealth did not include those areas, particularly education, which were of prime significance to library development.

In 1901 each of the federating colonies had a well-established central public reference and research library in its capital city, today's state libraries. Not only had the infant Commonwealth no national library, indeed no library of any kind, but the future state libraries, particularly those of New South Wales (in Sydney) and Victoria (in Melbourne) were of real quality and had come to see themselves as, in a very real sense, the "national" libraries of their respective colonies. Indeed the Public Library of New South Wales some time previously had come within an ace of being named the National Library of New South Wales. Thanks to the munificent Mitchell Bequest it certainly held (and still holds) the leading world collection of pre-1900 Australiana. Moreover, it was the state libraries which, more than any other type of library, had provided the leaders of the profession, had encouraged the development of professional associations in librarianship and had been the centres for library development and the establishers and maintainers of library standards. They were to maintain this preeminence for fifty years after Federation.

It was against this background that the infant national Government gave thought to the establishment of a national library. It is comforting to note that it did so even before the new Parliament met for the first time. An early Cabinet meeting decided not only to establish a Parliamentary Library but also, it seems, a Federal Public Library and to convene a conference of "librarians and other gentlemen" to advise on what form this library (or these libraries) should take.

Despite firm advice from Australia's leading librarian of the time (HCL Anderson of the Public Library of New South Wales[5] that the Library of Congress be used as a model for one institution to encompass both the Parliamentary and public roles, what was established was a Parliamentary Library with no pretension to being anything else, it being left to the Parliamentary Library Committee (a joint committee of the two Houses of Parliament) to determine what, if anything, should be done about any wider library responsibility.

After six years of silence, the Committee made a much-quoted surprise pronouncement on the topic, stating that it was "keeping before it the ideal of building up, for the time when Parliament shall be established in the Federal capital, a great public library on the lines of the world-famed Library of Congress."[6] This statement was astonishing, as Biskup notes, in all the circumstances and it was to resurface over the years as justification for various activities of the Parliamentary Library, for example: the acquisition of the Australiana collection of E.A. Petherick (and Petherick himself, as Commonwealth Archivist) in 1909; the purchase of the manuscript journal of Captain James Cook in 1926 (and the assumption, thereafter, of the name "Commonwealth National Library") and the securing of a separate building for the Library (however short-lived) at the time of the move to Canberra in 1927. Perhaps most significantly, it was used by the Library as a major argument against a proposed splitting off from it of all "national" activities in 1935.

Biskup refers to all this as the creation of a "myth." He provides his own interpretation of the timing of the 1907 declaration and asserts that the ultimate emergence of the National Library of Australia, far from being the result of the Legislature (or the Library) consciously pursuing the goal of a "great Public Library" on the model of the Library of Congress, was the "final act of a slow, piecemeal translation"[7] and "a story of largely unplanned development."[8]

While supporting in the main Biskup's "stops and starts" interpretation of this story, there is clear evidence that the development of a "national" element in the services (and especially in the collections) of the Parliamentary Library, assumed real importance particularly after the appointment of H.L. (later Sir Harold) White as "Commonwealth National Librarian" in 1947. A National Library Enquiry Committee (the Paton Committee) set up in 1956 to consider "the whole question of control of the National library and its functions" found that, since 1935, separate funding had been provided to cover the Library's "extra-Parliamentary" functions and that, by 1955, this amounted to 75% of the Library's total expenditure. Since 1930 the Library had been providing a public library service to the citizens of Canberra, since 1936 it had been involved in film collecting, preservation and lending, since 1946 it had conducted a library training school and, since 1952, it had functioned as the Commonwealth's archives authority.[9]

On the recommendation of the Paton Committee the Parliamentary Library was divested of all these supplementary functions (against the strong recommendation of H.L. White). To the new National Library went the "national" collections, the films, the infant national bibliography, the library school and services to the public. The archives were hived off to become ultimately the Australian Archives.

What was the reaction of the rest of the Australian library world both to the somewhat "on again, off again" development of the "national library" concept within the Parliamentary Library and to its final emergence as a separate National Library of Australia?

As far as the large state libraries were concerned, it might not be over-harsh to say that, over the years, they moved from lofty patronage through good humoured tolerance to growing irritation and perhaps even a trace of apprehension. Mistakenly, as it turned out, they saw the outcome of the Paton Committee as a weakening of the Commonwealth library presence ("Harold's empire has been demolished" as one state librarian put it, gleefully).[10] Other Australian libraries (and there were none to rival the state libraries even by 1956) remained largely indifferent to (and indeed largely ignorant of) the operations (or ambitions) of the Commonwealth National Library and almost literally took no notice of the emergence of the National Library of Australia. Events were in train, however, that were to raise this degree of awareness and to bring Australian libraries much closer together.

The establishment of the Australian Advisory Council on Bibliographical Services (AACOBS) in 1957 (allegedly seen by some state librarians as a devise to restrain the parvenu Commonwealth National Library) provided a forum for continuous consultation and a channel of advice to the Commonwealth National Library. As enlarged subsequently, AACOBS included all significant Australian libraries.[11]

In the same year a Commonwealth Committee of Enquiry (the Murray Committee) persuaded the Federal Government to rescue Australian universities from imminent bankruptcy and, indirectly, to change the whole balance of Australian library resources by promoting massive growth of university libraries.[12]

Next, a highly significant seminar of leading Australian librarians directed by Keyes Metcalf in 1958 created both an awareness of the need for co-ordination of effort and an atmosphere for improved library co-operation. It also suggested a national role for the Commonwealth National Library that went beyond the provision of the national bibliography. Though this echoed to some extent the airing that had been given to the Parliamentary Library's Committee 1907 Declaration in the Munn-Pitt report on Australian Libraries in 1935, it was the first substantial statement by an "outsider" on the topic.[13]

Finally, the need for co-ordinated action and the importance of the National Library were underlined in the report of a survey of Australian library resources undertaken for AACOBS by Maurice F. Tauber.[14]

It must be said that whatever voiced or unvoiced criticisms, or fears, may have been harboured in some quarters about Canberra megalomania were not borne out by the public statements of either

the Commonwealth National Library or, for some time, the National Library of Australia.[15] Moreover, each was at considerable pains to present itself as responding to pressure from the library community rather than initiating moves which might seem to emphasize its central role. Prime examples were the establishment of the national union catalogue of monographs (NUCOM) in 1960 and the introduction of central cataloguing in 1967.

Despite the very general and permissive wording of the National Library Act it was not until the third Annual Report (1962–3) of the Council of the National Library that any mention was made of a possible positive role for the Library in relation to other libraries: "the co-operative use of library resources on a national scale is an important responsibility of the National Library under its Act . . . major national union cataloguing plans and projects on Australia have naturally and properly been centred on the National Library."[16] We have to wait until the 9th Report (1965–69) for any full discussion of the functions of the Library and for the first emergence of the word "leadership."[17]

The opening of the new National Library building in 1968 brought a rapid change in outside perception of the Library. This prestige building on a dominant site in the national capital not only symbolized an enlarged presence for the Library but gave evidence of the importance assigned to it by the national Government. It also brought together for the first time (and enabled a real appreciation of), the massive collections that had been acquired. For some librarians outside Canberra it was really at last a suspension of disbelief.

The twenty years since the opening of the National Library building have seen dramatic changes in the perception of the National Library both from within and without as well as the first firm indication of a Government view about library services for the nation and the role of the National Library.

A publicly expressed concern for more adequate information services, especially in science and technology, in the early 70s coincided with the appointment of A.P. Fleming in succession to Sir Harold White, and resulted in a national Scientific and Technical Information Services Enquiry Committee (STISEC). STISEC recommended, inter alia, the establishment of a national scientific and technological information authority and, significantly, indicated the possibility of accommodating such an authority within the National Library Act.[18] Fleming stimulated discussion of a national information policy, imported Bjorn Tell to educate both librarians and senior public servants in that area[19] and set up a series of feasibility studies for a national, library-based information network (ALAIN, later ALBIS). The Government amended the National Library Act and recognized the National Library publicly as the "active centre of a nation-wide network."[20]

From this time the National Library took a much more positive stance. Its increasing extroversion it must be said brought a parallel acceptance, (though with some delay factor) on the part of Australian libraries of the central importance of the National Library. Fleming's successor, George Chandler, though precluded by a Commonwealth economy drive from pursuing Fleming's ALBIS dream, actively sponsored the development of resource-sharing, building the Australian Medline Service to one of the highest-used outside the United States, establishing the data-base host AUSINET and laying the ground work for a national shared cataloguing and bibliographic data-base service which appeared, under his successor, as the Australian Bibliographic Network (ABN).[21] These developments were received if not with mounting enthusiasm then at least with increasingly less grudging acceptance.[22]

It would be going too far to assign a similar growing enthusiasm to the Federal Government. Indeed quite recently it extended the thrust of the Paton Committee by establishing a new institution, the National Film and Sound Archive, to take over the Library's responsibilities in these areas. Nevertheless successive Governments have maintained a high level of financial support for the Library and, in 1981, came the first official recognition of the national importance of library and information services with the establishment of an Australian Libraries and Information Council (though this seems to have been short-lived) and there is ample evidence of Government acceptance of a central role for the National Library beyond that of being one of the national collecting institutions.

Rapid developments in technology, the initially high price of technology-based services and the increasing pressure of inflation and Government cut-backs on the budgets of other major Australian libraries certainly contributed to the strengthening of the National Library's image for other libraries, but there were other factors. Time has seen the passing of the more dedicated States-Righters among State Librarians, and an increasing element of leadership in the profession has come from other sectors, particularly academic and special libraries, less intimately concerned with the complications of Australian federalism. Then too, the Library has become an increasingly active and increasingly effective national flag-carrier on the international stage. Perhaps, finally, the fact that the two most recent appointments as Director-General of the National Library, were both of Australians from outside the Commonwealth bureaucracy, has assisted in establishing a more firmly-based mutual respect between the National Library and its community.

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The National Library of Iran in a period of change

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NATIONAL LIBRARIES IN A PERIOD OF CHANGE

Introduction

When we talk of "change" we should define what sort of change - change as it is occurring now or change as towards a higher ideal? Unfortunately the prospects of the social changes we are experiencing in the present time do not seem to be very promising. One can hardly conceal fear of the future when more than half of what Orwell or Huxley said in the first half of the present century has already taken place.

A change towards disunity, alienation and impersonality is not certainly what we are after, whether in the information age of the affluent society of the industrial countries, or in the dark age of the poor nations. What then really is Man after in this "information era"? An era in which Man is trying to overcome his loneliness through conformity with the social structure rather than unity sprouting from creative activity; an era in which you and I, a clerk, a worker or an artisan have become the "appendix to the machine or to bureaucratic organization". How much happiness, peace and individual freedom have been gained through this "information" we talk so proudly about?

Machines were supposed to give more leisure to Man, and indeed they did provide some. But the leisure time was soon filled with the discotheques and mass amusements, which with the spread of television have penetrated even to one's bedroom. Today man has become busier than ever - so much so that there seems to be no time "to stand and stare" - stare at the beauty of life and nature to inspire and enable Man to create productivity and unite him with the world in the process of this creation.

Having travelled in most of the European countries and some in the East, having read, seen, compared and discussed the problems related to different societies, I cannot conceal my fear of the changes that Mankind is pushed to, changes which have resulted in the misuse of information.

Yet I should leave, for the moment, change as a whole and concentrate on my theme "National Libraries in a period of change", Let me talk to you of the National Library of Iran in a period of change as a case study.

Indeed, we have witnessed a radical change from top to toe. In this situation everything that can be achieved depends on the individual librarian. The easiest way is to compromise with the so-called mass and stand aside in order to be safe, or give way to the opportunists who are after nothing but self-aggrandisement and mediocrity. On the other hand one can gain cultural ambitions during a period of change, especially when the previous norms have been broken to pieces and no new norm has yet been fully formed. This is the time that librarians should stand up and declare the right objectives for the promotion of libraries and pursue them despite all the difficulties which may stand in their way. It is not easy; to tell you the truth, it is heart-breaking. It may lead you to the desert of depression, but it is challenging and meaningful. You can eventually gain some of the objectives, if not all. No matter, leave the rest for the new comers to fulfil. But be sure that the real objectives have been clearly understood, especially by the profession and also by the authorities. It is a subtle art, but beautifully creative and satisfying in nature for the dedicated librarian.

That is, however what was done for the National Library of Iran during the period of great change, that is to say, during the Islamic Revolution.

Historial Background

I must go back a little to the past to convey the atmosphere before the change took place. The National Library of Iran was established in 1937 in a comparatively small area of 550 square metres adjacent to the Museum of Archeology.. It soon became apparent that it was too small. So some 570 square metres were added to it. The library occupied those 1120 square metres of space for 47 years.

The professional background

During these times almost no professional librarian entered the library. The first Director, through whose zeal the National Library had come into existence, was a learned man and a book lover, but completely unaware of the real objectives of a National Library. He directed the library for 20 years. Nevertheless those were the most glorious days of the National Library of Iran. In the last 30 years the library has had more than 20 directors. With the exception of three, they were non-professional. Of these three, the first one belonging to the previous regime somehow could not bear the situation more than a few months and left the country for good. He was Dr Nasser Sharifi, who then became the Dean in the Pratt Institute in the United States. The second one, who was previously head of the Department of Iranology, became head Librarian during the last year of his stay in the Library. He also

did not or could not do much for the library in the previous regime. The third was appointed during the period of change. Although his stay did not last long either, nevertheless during his directorship he paved the say for bringing some professional staff into the National Library for the first time. A proposal was co-signed by him as the Director of the National Library and the Director of the Tehran Book Processing Centre (TEBROC), which then had the most experienced professional librarians among its staff, to amalgamate the two bodies in one institution under the name of the National Library of Iran.

The library scene before amalgamation

The proposal was forwarded to the related Ministry in 1980, but the actual amalgamation took place three years later. Three years of upheaval and darkness passed, during which some of the professional staff of TEBROC were dispersed among other instiutions to do non-professional jobs. Anxiety and despair invaded the morale of the majority of staff. There were only a few who injected courage into the exhausted veins of the others. Outside TEBROC, some promising signs for library development were appearing. Small libraries were established in rural areas which had never seen the face of a library, and several libraries were established in smaller towns at each corner. A shrewd eye could see the ephemeral nature of them. Yet the scene had its vividness and the interest that the people showed towards them was very persuasive.

TEBROC reorganized its short courses to meet the needs of the new situation and trained quite a number of interested volunteers to handle the newly established small public libraries.

Suddenly a new discussion broke out against the use of some classification systems common to Iranian libraries, on the ground that they were western and, worse, an American device. Active steps were initiated by librarians to hold a seminar to answer the antagonistic questions officially and systematically both on classification systems and other matters such as various ideas as to the collections of libraries. This was an inspiration. The seminar took place in the holy town of Mash'had in the University of Mash'had. Some well-known librarians and book lovers, among them one or two clergymen, were invited. The result, though not entirely satisfactory to my taste, put an end to the unreasonable prejudices about classification and prohibited the dispersal of any book from the collection of any university libraries. The disposal of any of the collection of the NationaL Library was in any case out of the question.

While we were fighting against local misunderstandings or fanatic prejudices, the news from outside the country was irritating. IFLA, instead of backing up the professional librarians by either inviting them to international forums or somehow supporting the efforts which had been made to bring about modern librarianship in Iran, suddenly sent a letter to the Government accusing them of book burning. Yes, some books were burnt, not by the direct order of the new people who had come to power, but unfortunately by either irresponsible opportunists or different political groups who were against each other. These, sad and horrifying though they were, are apparently common to any revolution. The effect of the letter among professional librarians was discouraging, since we could no longer talk well of IFLA nor make the authorities accept our ideas in the ground that they were confirmed by IFLA.

In the same Seminar, however, an answer to IFLA was prepared and sent to the president. I do not know whether it was ever received, read or discussed in any IFLA conference, but I assure you that the reply was entirely genuine and true. The resolutions of the Seminar was issued and signed by the Minister of Culture and Higher Education and sent as a circular to all university libraries.

The public libraries were unfortunately under more pressure. The librarians, aware of this, requested a similar seminar for the public libraries. I have to leave this matter for the present paper and go back to the National Library in the remaining period of change.

The inherited National Library

At last TEBROC was amalgamated in the National Library of Iran. By that time the professional Director had left the job. There was no professional librarian to welcome us. The National Library was in a mess. Books and periodicals were covered with a thick layer of dust. The building was shabby, the walls were dirty and the basements were full of insects and filth. Books were piled up all over the place; even in the office of the Director there was hardly any room to move. Books were piled up over the conference table, mostly unpacked. The stack areas were full and new books were slowly accessioned and put back in cartons stacked in halls and corridors. The arrangement of the books was according to accession number. About one third of them had some sort of catalogue card. The public catalogue was also in a mess. Even the precious manuscripts were kept in a very poor condition. Some 7,000 manuscripts of the ex-Pahlavi Library, some of them really priceless,

had been brought to the Library in the beginning of the revolution. After 4 years they were still unpacked in ordinary cartons thrown over the floor in an empty room. The so called National Bibliography was 5 years behind. No-one in the library had heard about UBC, UAP or other core programmes of IFLA. This was what we inherited from the previous regime: an utterly dead library, a library without a budget to buy books!

The endeavours

Now, we were not the favourite of the new regime, but we were determined to fight for the ideals of our profession and get the approval of the authorities to build up a decent National Library. We are still fighting... Things moved so slowly that many times people lost their morale. We started writing reports for the authorities and made down-to-earth suggestions for the development of the National Library. We sent personal and official letters to top statesmen, we even had the audacity to write to ministers, and also to the president of the republic, explaining the painful situation of the National Library and the role that it should play both nationally and internationally. Articles and reports were written in journals conveying the same facts and attracting the attention of the authorities to the weaknesses of all libraries as a whole and National Library in particular. If one puts all these reports, letters and articles together, they would amount to more than 200 pages. We also tried somehow to brainwash our Director so that we could convey our ideas to the authorities through him. The most unfortunately situation was the continues changes of Director. As soon asd one became familiar with library work, he was replaced by a new one. In the nine years after the revolution the National Library has had ten Directors!

The achievements

However, our efforts were not wasted. At last they penetrated into the Cabinet. To go into detail is not possible in this forum, but we gradually achieved quite a considerable amount, though still far from our ideal. The pamphlet which was published almost a year and a half ago will tell you some of the achievements. I should only like to point out that by now, in spite of all hardships and shortcomings, the following achievements have been made:

1. The books are being fully catalogued and classified according to international standards since 1983.
2. The National Bibliography has become up-dated with a new format to meet the specification of the Unesco Guidelines since 1983.
3. A new constitution of the National Library has been prepared and is now passing the last phase of discussion in the Cabinet for approval; when this is given, for the first time in Iran there will be an independent National Library governed by a Board of Trustees of which, apart from the chief librarian, two eminent professional librarians will be permanent members.
4. The construction of a new building for the National Library in the same area as decided in the previous regime is also under discussion in the Cabinet.
5. Most important of all is the increase in the budget. At a time when the government declared a cut or no rise in the budget of all organizations, there were only two exceptions, one of them being the National Library of Iran, whose budget rose from RIs 15,000,000 to RIs 210,000,000.

Thus I believe that in the period of change, with all the hardships, problems and disasters there may have been, there can be more hope for reconstruction and establishment of modern ideas than in a supposedly calm period, providing that we have the sincerity, the will, the courage and the integrity to fight for them.

At times when things get really hard at home and some of my colleagues give way to despair, I often remind them that the greatest Iranian works of art were created during the darkest period of our history. Poets like Firdowsi, Hafiz, Mowlavi and many others must have put the essence of their lives into their words to create such fascinating works through which not only was the continuity of our culture maintained but by becoming universally known, honour and prestige were gained for the nation. Since Unesco has announced 1988 the year of Hafiz, let me read a line of his poem which is not irrelevant to this paper:

> My heart fled from the cloister, and chant of monkish hymn.
> What can avail me sainthood, fasting and punctual prayer?
> Say not, O Friend, to Hafiz, "Quiet thee now and rest."
> Calm and content, what are they? Patience and peace, O where?

The Epilogue

Now we may go ahead and achieve much more. We can become a true National Library in the fashion of the West and boast about the rapid dissemination of information through the use of computers and satellites. Yet one often thinks what sort of information do we disseminate in this world and for what purpose? Have we produced

more love and affection for mankind? Or are we disseminating information to manufacture more destructive arms, weapons and missiles? Do we have time to stand and think about living closely together and using the information for the benefit of Man, as IFLA so beautifully suggests: Living together - people, libraries, information?

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NATIONAL LIBRARIES IN A TIME OF CHANGE: VIEWPOINT FROM A DEVELOPING COUNTRY--PAPUA NEW GUINEA

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Today I intend to examine the situation of libraries in developing countries before and after their independence and the experiences in Papua New Guinea during this time of change. For many of you, "a time of change" means a time when computers have changed many aspects of librarianship. For developing countries--and certainly for Papua New Guinea--computer technology is becoming a part of our libraries; but NOTHING has influenced change as much as Independence. Papua New Guinea's independence from Australia came on 16 September 1975.

LIBRARIES IN THE PRE-INDEPENDENCE PERIOD

Like most developing countries, Papua New Guinea's library system was modelled after an ideal European plan. The users were mostly non-Papua New Guineans. Expatriates held the senior staff positions. The concepts of librarianship were based entirely on foreign models. There were very few school libraries. There were relatively few schools. Not until the prospect of Independence became real did Australia awaken to the vital importance of educating my people.

At Independence, Australia gave us a gift of a National Library building, a core collection of books, and, through the first National Librarian, Sir John Yocklunn, directions to bring all government library activities under one umbrella. Independence made Papua New Guinea responsible for dealing with the problems of its own library development.

LIBRARIES IN THE POST-INDEPENDENCE PERIOD

The major thrust since independence has been to replace expatriate staff with Papua New Guineans, both in the civil service and in private enterprise. This has had a twofold effect on our libraries.

1) Few of the most able and better educated university graduates take up librarianship because there are so many other opportunities with higher pay or prestige.

2) Expatriate librarians have been replaced by people who often have little experience and, in some cases, inadequate qualifications.

This must be familiar to all of you from developing countries. But as you also know, this is just one of the factors which affect library development in new nations. Let me touch on some of the others:

Government funding--Most independent developing countries have limited and uncertain financial resources. National planning gives priority to economic development. Since expenditure on libraries does not directly result in an increase in the gross national product, most libraries receive low priority in the allocation of funds.

Often there is no general demand for libraries. As a result, there is little political mileage to be gained from advocating library development. Politicians normally press for roads, bridges, schools, hospitals, jobs, and business opportunities. Their re-election often depends on their

ability to obtain these items, not libraries, for their electorates.

Consequently, there is little or no pressure from the politicians on the planners and decision makers for libraries. There are exceptions, of course, where librarians have been able to use the political system or to mobilise public support for libraries, but this is rare. Because libraries have too low a priority in the national budget, some countries may rely on foreign aid for libraries. There are some inherent difficulties with this. For example, aid donors may insist on something that is clearly identifiable as their gift, such as a mobile library or a model project, although it is not your high priority. Often the developing country is unable to continue to staff the gift library, to provide replacement vehicles, or buy new books.

On a more positive side, the recent decade has seen an increasing interest by Unesco and other international bodies in library and information services, increased awareness of the value of resource sharing and library co-operation on a regional or international basis, and the increasingly international nature of librarianship.

Population distribution--Most of the population is widely scattered in hamlets or villages in rural areas, making provision of library services both difficult and costly.

Topography--High mountains, fast-flowing rivers, or long distances to outlying centres or to islands scattered over the ocean require a heavy reliance on costly air transport.

Language--In many developing countries, a European language is the de-facto national language or one of two official languages, while a few vernaculars survive. Papua New Guinea is at the other extreme. We have more than 700 local languages, most of them unwritten, and three 'official' languages, but no single 'national' language. Most books are written in our readers' second or third language. While English is the language taught in government-financed schools, the average English-language book is too difficult for most readers, and only a minority can benefit from them.

Literacy and lack of reading habit--Developed countries regard reading for pleasure as normal and desirable. In many developing countries, the literacy rate is low and, even for people who can read, there may be no privacy, no light to read by at night, and sitting alone with a book may be regarded as anti-social behaviour. These factors make it difficult to develop the reading habit.

Lack of suitable reading material--Little is published locally or about matters that are of immediate local interest. Most needed information is passed on orally.

The custodial concept of librarianship--Some developing countries make the librarian personally responsible for the

loss or damage of a book. The result is that the librarian is more interested in the safe custody of the book rather than making it available for use.

Foreign exchange restrictions--Some developing countries have rigid control of foreign exchange, which makes it difficult to import books.

Censorship--A number of countries have strict censorship laws--political, religious, moral, etc.--which restrict the free dissemination of library materials.

Despite these and other common problems, many developing countries have established good library services. As long as there are individual librarians who refuse to give up and who are highly motivated to serve their people, the fight for progress will be won.

NATIONAL LIBRARY SERVICES

In some countries, national libraries are separate institutions superimposed on the general library pattern. In essence, they are additional to other types of libraries, such as academic libraries, special libraries, public libraries, and school libraries. They are intended to complement these libraries by providing services which are better carried out on a national basis. The national library is the one responsible for collecting and conserving the whole of that country's book production for the benefit of future generations. It has responsibilities and tasks of national and international significance. These include the

compilation of a national bibliography, responsibility for issuing International Standard Book Numbers, and helping to develop a national information policy. The national library provides technical services which for economic or administrative reasons are not practical on a local level. It also provides large reference and research collections of national significance.

In a number of countries, a single institution may carry out additional library functions. Some are national-academic libraries, serving both as university libraries and as the national library. National-public libraries are a common combination in newly independent countries. Some national libraries' primary function is to serve their country's legislature.

NATIONAL LIBRARY SERVICE OF PAPUA NEW GUINEA

The territorial House of Assembly's Cabinet began consideration of a national library service at its meeting on 16th January 1974. Policy Submission No. 491/73, 5th November 1973, from the Acting Minister for Information, sought the establishment of a National Library Service to co-ordinate the operations of all libraries financed by the government, with the exception of university libraries. Cabinet set up a staff inter-departmental committee to make a feasibility study.

The committee favoured a multi-purpose institution, which would provide public library services, run some

government libraries and co-ordinate and assist others, provide centralised technical services, and act as a national library. In a nutshell, Papua New Guinea should have a national library service, not a separate national library.

Cabinet Decision 11/75 laid down the role of the National Library Service. This directive is wide-ranging. (See Appendix.) It covers advisory and co-ordination responsibilities for school, public, and government libraries; the development and maintenance of national collections; the promotion of literacy; and the provision of information and bibliographical services.

The guiding principle underlying this strategy involves the upgrading of school, public, and government libraries in recognition of the important role they play in formal and non-formal education, in the development and maintenance of literacy, and in the provision of information for economic and social development. The strategy also attempts to address the need to provide a nationally co-ordinated framework for library development, a critical requirement if the scarce information resources of Papua New Guinea are to be used effectively.

There were strong reasons for the consolidation of all government libraries, training institution libraries, and public libraries into an integrated national library service. This would cut costly, unnecessary duplication of materials and services. These libraries represented a

significant annual investment. In 1974/75, about A$250,000 was budgeted for books and library supplies. Staff salaries for these libraries would have cost several hundred thousand dollars. There also were strong economic reasons for co-ordinating technical services for school and public libraries. Centralised purchasing, cataloguing, and processing would reduce costly duplication and, in the case of purchasing, also pay off in price discounts.

To help get the National Library Service under way, the Australian government gave Papua New Guinea an independence gift of a national library building at the new government centre at Waigani, and the National Library of Australia accepted the responsibility for developing the initial collection. Materials donated by National Library of Australia, the Australian Bureau of Statistics, the Australian Parliamentary Library, and the Department of External Territories Library are valuable historical resources about the government of Papua New Guinea prior to independence. Several other foreign governments enhanced the collection with substantial gifts of books.

On 30 October 1978, the Prime Minister of Australia, the Right Hon. Malcolm Fraser, formally handed over the building and our Prime Minister, the Right Hon. Michael Somare, officially opened the National Library of Papua New Guinea.

THE REALITY

Despite its auspicious beginnings and the obvious need for library development throughout the country, the enormous potential of the National Library Service has been only marginally realised over the past ten years. Policies and decisions, or the lack of such, in some fundamental areas have hampered the library's effectiveness in carrying out its wide-ranging responsibilities.

One of these changes was a constitutional amendment in 1976 which created provincial governments. The organic laws which detailed the powers of Papua New Guinea's 19 provincial governments specifically made them responsible for their own libraries. With few exceptions, provinces' spending for public library development has been limited. As a result, many provincial public libraries have deteriorated to a critical level, and several have been closed. Sadly, there is nothing that I can do about this. The National Library Service has continued to provide professional help in book selection, centralised processing, and advisory services for planning and development.

The dream of consolidating most small government departmental libraries hasn't materialised. Government officials jealously guard their right to have a few books on their 'turf' rather than having to go to another building where a bigger, more useful collection is available. Some of these libraries are too small to be viable in terms of

staff, books, or finance. They do not provide good service, but they are the reality.

The Library's function as the nation's depository has continued to depend on personal communication and persuasion to prompt and remind individuals and organisations to provide a copy of all books and materials printed or published within Papua New Guinea.

Ministerial direction, support, and representation has been inconsistent. The National Library Service has passed through the hands of four ministries and a series of ministers in each. Our most recent change of government this past July sidetracked the adoption of a National Library and Archives Act, which would have enabled the library to better fulfill the original Cabinet directives. We still have hopes on this front.

EXPRESSED NEEDS AND FUTURE TRENDS

We need to develop a National Information Policy, and it is my intention for the National Library to take a strong leadership role.

The National Library currently publishes a national bibliography, which has been praised for conforming to the highest of international standards. It may well be time for us to consider lowering our standards in order to get information to the people faster.

The National Library recently completed a detailed revision of our book selection policy, with an eye toward better fulfilling the information needs of Papua New Guinea.

One of the most positive developments has been the creation of Friends of the National Library. This volunteer group has helped with library chores, created an annual index to one of Papua New Guinea's major newspapers, and donated funds for important pieces of equipment that we could not get through our own budget. The Friends also organise interesting public talks which help publicise our services.

One of the most important things we need to do in Papua New Guinea is develop a more effective Library Council. This council, made up mostly of librarians, must improve its communication with government so that library needs cease to be a well-kept secret from those who hold the pursestrings.

Another priority is to bolster the Book Council of Papua New Guinea. This is a group of librarians, publishers, government officials, and interested individuals. Its major goals are to encourage local writing and publishing, encourage development of reading skills, and examine such issues as copyright laws.

Our experience in Port Moresby, and statistics from the provinces, show that library usage has changed markedly in recent years. Libraries that once were the domain of expatriates have become heavily used by Papua New Guinea students, government employees, and unemployed males looking

for knowledge that will help them find work. This trend will only increase. The new government has given education a high priority. The last government emphasised economic and infrastructure development at the expense of social service departments, including education. Papua New Guinea has had five different governments in the 13 short years since Independence, so no institution ever really feels safe against sudden changes. However, for the moment, education and libraries are in favour. The government hopes for universal primary education by the mid-1990s. The implications for libraries are clear. As literacy develops, so will the demand for information and the desire to read. As National Librarian, I look forward to this kind of change. If people need libraries, they are going to support libraries. Soon we may be ready to fulfill the ideals that were encompassed in the creation of the National Library Service of Papua New Guinea.

APPENDIX

On 15th January, 1975, Cabinet noted the Report of the Inter-Departmental Committee on the Feasibility of a National Library Service, and Cabinet approved:

(a) The establishment of a National Library Service with the following functions:

i) to promote literacy, encourage reading and disseminate information and ideas by the establishment of public libraries, mobile library services, rural library services and by other means;

ii) to maintain and develop a national collection of library material, including a comprehensive collection of library materials relating to Papua New Guinea and its people;

iii) to provide library services to Parliament and to Government Departments, authorities and institutions;

iv) to advise on, coordinate and rationalise the resources and services of government libraries;

v) to make available such other services, in relation to library matters and library materials (including bibliographical services), which the National Library Service thinks fit;

vi) to cooperate in library matters with authorities or institutions concerned with library matters, whether in Papua New Guinea or elsewhere.

13(15)

(b) The creation of an Office of the National Library responsible to the Chief Minister, to administer and control the National Library Service.

(c) The creation of positions of National Librarian, Deputy National Librarian and such other positions as are agreed to by the Public Service Board.

(d) The transfer to the National Library Service of the Film Library and the Public Library Service from the Office of Information.

(e) The transfer to the National Library Service of such books, equipment, staff and budget allocations as are agreed to by the Department of Finance, the Public Service Board and the Department concerned.

(f) The commencement of operations by the National Library Service on 1st July, 1975, subject to the availability of funds.

(g) The recruitment and appointment of a National Librarian in the current financial year, (subject to the availability of funds, or subject to the availability of a suitable person from the Australian Staffing Assistance Group), so that detailed planning of the National Library Service and negotiations with Government departments, etc., on library services and library materials can be completed before 1st July 1975.

(h) The seeking of funds and experts for a national library service from foreign governments, international bodies and private foundations, in accordance with the

procedures laid down by the Government for requesting foreign aid.

(i) The allocation of a sum of $10,000 in the current financial year for consultants, preliminary design work for a national library building, office furniture, library equipment, travel and other administrative expense prior to 1st July, 1975, subject to the availability of funds, if funds cannot be transferred.

(j) Recruitment of two graduates to undertake a one year full-time library course at the Administrative College beginning in March 1975.

(k) The establishment of a Library Council of Papua New Guinea, (consisting of representatives of the two University Libraries, the National Library Service (including the Public Library Division), the Administrative College Library, other major libraries, the Central Planning Office and the Papua New Guinea Library Association), responsible to the Chief Minister, with the following functions:

i) to discuss matters of mutual interest;

ii) to promote library cooperation;

iii) to advise the Government on library matters, including standards of library service; and

iv) to advise on professional matters relating to the establishment of a National Library Service.

(l) The drafting of legislation to provide for statutory deposit of library materials printed in PNG.

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Parliamentary Libraries in Southeast Asia: Status of Development and Prospects for Cooperation

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Parliamentary Libraries in South East Asia: Status of development and prospects for co-operation.

Since the mid-1980s, some remarkable strides have been taken by the Parliaments of South East Asia to expand and upgrade the staff, collections, and services of their respective libraries. Some are still entirely manual operations, while others - notably Taiwan and Thailand have begun to utilize computer technology for bibliographic control and information dissemination. However, in spite of tangible improvements within bibliographic control and information dissemination of individual institutions, inter-library co-operation is a concept on which there has been a lot of talk and little action. The paper reviews and updates the author's previous contributions regarding the status of the various parliamentary libraries' developmental programmes and assesses areas of possible co-operation as hindrances to the effective implementation of co-operative schemes..

Jane Ann Lindley

ABSTRACT

J. Lindley (Pak). Parliamentary libraries in Southeast Asia: status of development and prospects for cooperation

Since the mid-1980s, some remarkable strides have been taken by the parliaments of Southeast Asia to expand and upgrade the staff, collections, and services of their respective libraries. Some are still entirely manual operations, while others -- notably Taiwan and Thailand -- have begun to utilize computer technology for bibliographic control and information dissemination. However, in spite of tangible improvements within individual institutions, interlibrary cooperation is a concept on which there has been a lot of talk and little action. The paper will review and update the author's previous contributions regarding the status of the various parliamentary libraries' developmental programs and assess areas of possible cooperation as well as hindrances to the effective implementation of cooperative schemes.

Introduction

In the paper on "Third World Parliaments and Their Libraries," delivered at the conference in Brighton, I gave a brief synopsis of the developments underway in a number of the parliamentary libraries, with particular reference to those in Asia. The purpose of that paper was to highlight the positive transformations which have taken place across the landscape of parliamentary librarianship in the Third World, some of which have been fairly dramatic.

When I agreed to present this paper, I had expected to have revisited most of the parliaments in Southeast Asia during the course of the past year. Unfortunately, for a variety of reasons that did not turn out to be the case.

On the other hand, most fortunately, many of our Asian colleagues are attending this year's conference (with the generous assistance of the Australian Commonwealth Parliament). Since they can personally share with us their own accounts of the current programs in their respective libraries, this paper will specifically focus on the possibilities for cooperation among them and with colleagues in other parts of the world.

Promoting Cooperation

Promoting cooperation has, indeed, been one of the basic objectives pursued by IFLA throughout the sixty one years since its founding in 1927. It has been continually reflected, as well, in the themes adopted for its annual conferences, including this year's theme: Living Together.

However, the ideal (to which I am sure we all subscribe) and the reality are rather disparate, at least as the experience in so many of the developing countries would seem to indicate. To be sure, there is some degree of cooperation in such areas as

interlibrary lending and occasional exchanges of visits. But practically speaking, most of the cooperative activity -- where there has been any at all -- has been rather limited in both scope and effect.

To determine why this is so and what can be done about it, let us first candidly look at some of the most critical problems in order to identify areas where cooperative ventures would be most beneficial. Let us then consider a few specific proposals for effecting tangible cooperative schemes.

Critical Problems

With extremely limited financial resources, the libraries of the parliaments in Southeast Asia, along with those in South Asia and throughout the Third World, lack the manpower and basic materials -- let alone the technology -- to give proper organization and rapid access to their collections. The lack of suitable space and equipment, the shortage of well-qualified and trained staff, and the paucity of up-to-date reference and indexing tools hinders the provision of relevant and timely services within their own institutions.

Obviously, these same strictures severely limit the sharing of information between institutions to such an extent that they are not even availing of the means of cooperating in ways that would alleviate some of their most pressing problems. For example, with the Republic of China's Legislative Yuan being a notable exception, no parliamentary library in Southeast or South Asia (to the best of my knowledge) is participating in any cooperative cataloging programs.

This means that the parliamentary libraries are expending precious funds to acquire and catalog or index the same books, journals, newspapers, and documents that in so many cases form the primary collections of other indigenous research and special libraries. The unnecessary duplication of collections and costs of cataloging them reduces the ability to build and service comprehensive collections in relevant subjects.

Furthermore, with the shortage of staff in both number and qualification, the level of book cataloging is often rudimentary at best, while the indexing of periodical literature and government documents is almost nonexistent. Thus, the library collections, irrespective of their size, are terribly underutilized in terms of circulation to readers, not to mention their usefulness in supporting legislative research.

The most serious problem which hinders cooperation between parliamentary libraries of different countries is the language barrier. It limits not only the usefulness of exchanging parliamentary documents but also the opportunities for sharing experiences.

IFLA itself has been of no particular assistance here, since none of the Asian langauges has been designated as an official language of the Association. Thus, even the IFLA Journal, which carries informative articles on significant developments in our profession, is of little value to the majority of our Asian colleagues.

The language problem, severe as it is for the majority who are maintaining manual operations, is magnified for the few who are endeavoring to develop automated information systems. Most of them necessarily have to develop their own software in order to "harness" the computer's capabilities to their indigenous language requirements. This is so wherever the national langauge is unique to a particular country and its parliament, such as in Thailand.

However, the language barrier hampers them, as well, from effectively utilizing the systems analyses, design, and documentation developed by their sister parliaments, which would be of such great help to them in their development efforts. It also makes it more difficult for them to participate in regional and international information networks, at least in terms of the present state of the art.

There are many other problems confronting individual parliamentary libraries in developing countries, most of which are directly related to the competition for meager funds. The parliaments all too often lack the political clout to appropriate sufficient sums for their own internal requirements at the expense of sorely needed national development programs. This is true in Southeast Asia as well as other parts of the world.

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Unfortunately, the competition for funds also gives rise to an insidious problem of jealousy within parliaments as well as between library institutions. This is so not only with regard to budgetary allocations but also with staff development schemes.

Proposals for Cooperative Ventures

There are in my view at least three areas where cooperation can help alleviate some of the more significant problems. Namely, these are shared cataloging and collection building, staff training and development, and automation.

In the first instance, I believe that parliamentary libraries, as national institutions, should play a leadership role in securing cooperation among the major libraries within their individual countries. In view of the language problem, this is more important than trying to sustain cooperative programs with institutions in foreign countries.

It is even more so for those parliamentary libraries in which the size of collections and mode of operations are so modest that they cannot really make a viable contribution to cooperative ventures on an international level. The most urgent need is for parliamentary librarians to participate in local cooperative cataloging programs where they already exist, such as in Malaysia, and to try to institute them where they do not.

This would lead not only to higher standards of cataloging but also to the effective maintenance of union catalogs, which would improve access to information for all of the respective libraries' users. It would also help reduce redundant efforts of collection building and enable each participating library to capitalize its acquisitions investment in the areas where the particular demands of its immediate clientele dictate.

Cooperative programs with respect to staff training and development ought to be pursued in two ways. One is to establish intern programs in cooperation with certain graduate departments of indigenous universities. In addition to the library science department, I would include those in the fields of political science, law, economics, and international affairs.

In the scheme I would propose, students would be selected for internships on a competitive basis by a joint panel comprised of university faculty and administrators of the parliamentary library. The interns would work for three to six months in the parliamentary library in lieu of attending classes but would earn academic credit for their practical work.

In this way, the parliamentary library derives the immediate benefit of added staff who are willing workers, while the students gain relevant practical knowledge which will give them a "leg-up" in the job market of their chosen professions

once they have completed their academic studies. The universities also benefit by turning out graduates who are better trained and qualified for professional library and research work.

The Library and Documentation Center of the Grand National Assembly of Turkey has had remarkable success with such a program over the past few years. In fact, nearly all of the professional staff recruited in the course of its modernization project had been participants in its intern program.

Besides internships, staff exchanges between parliamentary libraries is an excellant way not only to enhance the training and development of personnel but also to strengthen relations between the institutions. By staff exchanges I do not mean the occasional brief visits some of us make to other parliamentary libraries, although I think these are also important means of facilitating communication and cooperation.

Rather, an exchange would entail deputations of one to three months of one or more staff members between cooperating parliamentary libraries. I well remember a very fruitful exchange of this sort which took place a few years ago between CRS and the Canadian Parliamentary Library.

In that program, a librarian and a research analyst from CRS spent a month in Ottawa working with their Canadian colleagues. After their return, a librarian and a research analyst from the Canadian Parliamentary Library came to work in CRS for a month. Our Canadian colleagues not only contributed to our work for Congress but also conducted a seminar for a large number of our staff to acquaint us with their organization and operations.

While these sorts of exchanges may be difficult for some parliaments to finance, there are organizations which will give grants-in-aid for them. The Asia Foundation, for instance, is one such organization.

It has for many years now supported exchange programs between Asian parliaments and the U.S. Congress. It is also willing to help finance the costs of staff exchanges between parliaments in Asia, as part of its regional programming, in recognition of the fact that the Asian parliaments have much to share with each other in terms of their various developmental efforts.

With respect to automation, a great deal more cooperation is needed between the developed and developing parliaments as well as between the developing parliaments themselves. Among the Asian parliaments, for example, those in Japan, Korea, Taiwan, the Philippines, Thailand, Bangladesh, and Pakistan are engaged to one degree or another in planning and implementing computer systems.

However, in part because of the language problems and in part because of the involvement of various outsiders in their efforts, each is more or less going it alone. In the process, valuable time and precious money is being wasted reinventing the wheel. In large measure, this is because information on the relevant analyses and designs of other parliamentary information systems -- let alone the software specifications and related documentation -- is not available in the national languages of the respective parliaments.

While each parliament, no doubt, will in due course come up with a good system to cater to its own requirements, the net effect, I am afraid, will be a negative one. If totally disparate systems are brought up, it will be virtually impossible to link them into regional as well as international networks.

This will result in lessening rather than enhancing the ability to exchange information between parliaments in the next century, as access to our respective collections will undoubtedly be increasingly, if not entirely, controlled by electronic means.

Perhaps the Parliamentary Libraries Section itself could be a catalyst for strengthening cooperation in this area. I propose that the Section set up a subcommittee to collect relevant literature on the computer systems of each parliament and to publish a compendium of such documentation.

Then, at the least, any parliament undertaking the development of a computer system would have reference to information about other such systems, which it could arrange to have translated into its own national language. This would encourage and facilitate the design and implementation of compatible systems that could be linked into an international network in the foreseeable future.

The turn of the century, after all, is little more than a decade away. In keeping with our conference theme of "Living Together," we ought to be bending every effort to bring the world's parliaments and the people they serve closer together.

END

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